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Innovative programs and new methods of training for cross cultural skills in interpersonal interaction are the focus of this review which provides a bibliography with 48 abstracts of documents, largely from the years 1966 to 1968; a topical digest of the main points made in these documents, elaborated by quotations from the texts; and an index to documents, or to sections of documents, which relate to each section of the review. The review of the literature is contained under the following headings: The cross cultural training problem; The need for more effective methods of cross cultural training; Conditions affecting the design of cross cultural training programs; Conceptualizing the training task; and Cross cultural interaction training methods. The document also lists other publications of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education, and gives instructions for ordering documents in microfiche and hard copy from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service and from the Clearinghouse for Federal Scientific and Technical Information. (author/ly)

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CROSS CULTURAL INTERACTION SKILLS: A DIGEST OF RECENT TRAINING LITERATURE

Roger DeCrow

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February 1969

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CROSS CULTURAL INTERACTION SKILLS

A Digest of Recent Training Literature

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1. *CROSS CULTURAL TRAINING PROBLEM*

In the Peace Corps, in business and industry, in the State Department, AID, the armed forces and in many other agencies, thousands of Americans are serving abroad in missions where competence in the field of human relations determines success or failure. Since conventional area studies, lectures, classroom exercises and "how to get along with" manuals have been ineffective in preparing for these missions, new methods are being tested to provide quicker, more effective, and hopefully, more economical training for cross cultural interaction skills.

Technical competence, language skills and many other capacities are always required for effective service overseas and they are, of course, major components of most training programs for such missions. Experience has shown, however, that they will be insufficient if communication and rapport cannot be established between the American advisor and the persons he encounters in the foreign culture, though whom all his contributions must be mediated. In these personal encounters, subtle but profound culture-rooted differences will invariably intrude, often disruptively, even when the persons themselves are motivated by good will and the most earnest intention to be helpful to each other.

Some of these cultural differences are immediately apparent in variations in dress, food, manners and other customs. Others, however, arise from the depths of national culture or individual personality and involve non-verbal and even unconscious differences in ways of thinking, in basic assumptions about life and the world, and in value systems. They can, and do, leave many dedicated Americans "talking past" their foreign counterparts in a dismaying, seemingly inexplicable process which soon leads to culture fatigue, discouragement and retreat into the "golden ghetto" where only fellow Americans will be encountered.

Some quotations from the literature may make the general problem more explicit.

> *Culture fatigue.* ..."culture shock" was far less of a problem than "culture fatigue," which appears much more gradually. Culture fatigue is the physical and emotional exhaustion that almost invariably results from the infinite series of minute adjustments required for long-term survival in an alien culture. Living and working overseas generally requires that one must suspend his automatic evaluations and judgments; that he must supply new interpretations to seemingly familiar behavior; and that he must demand of himself constant alterations in the style and content of his activity. Whether this process is conscious or unconscious, successful or unsuccessful, it consumes an enormous amount of energy, leaving the individual decidedly fatigued. (44, p.48-9)

> *Cultural differences.* Like an American overseas, an American in his own country is likely to see a situation in terms of his own perspective - a set of assumptions and values that is largely a product of his own sub-cultural exposure. In both instances, many difficulties can be viewed as arising primarily from the incongruities in values, beliefs, and ways of life which reflect in turn differences in occupation, socioeconomic status, cultural background, or other affiliation factors. The difference, of course, is that the cultural differences are greater and far more pervasive overseas; hence the greater need for relevant training. (13, p.5)

> *Complex relationships.* The third consideration, and the most important, is the psychological evaluation for work abroad, which has to differ considerably from selection for work at home. When men have failed overseas, it has rarely been found to be due to deficiency in their professional work. It is nearly always due to a personal difficulty, such as lack of ability to adapt to local conditions or inability to deal with the complicated interpersonal relationships in the foreign situation. Consequently, greater demands have been made upon the psychological selection process for the foreign situation, and these are not easy to fulfill. (20, p.186)

> *Conflicting premises.* The critical point is that these cross-cultural factors are not of the obvious sort, such as differences of dress, gestures, or food which tend to get emphasized because of their exotic appeal. Rather they have to do with basic cultural premises and thought patterns which pervasively intrude upon everyday behavior and yet do so in a subtle way that tends to escape awareness. (13, p.4)

Non-verbal behavior. *A large portion of the perception of meaning in human interaction stems from the nonverbal rather than the verbal portion of such behavior. Hall defines proxemics as: ... the study of ways in which man gains knowledge of the content of other men's minds through judgements of behavior patterns associated with varying degrees of proximity to them. These behavior patterns are learned, and thus they are not genetically determined. But because they are learned (and taught) largely outside awareness, they are often treated as though they were innate. I have found this type of behavior to be highly stereotyped, less subject to distortion than consciously controlled behavior and important to individuals in the judgements they form as to what is taking place around them at any given moment in time.*
This area of interest in nonverbal culturally determined interpersonal communication has been labeled paracommunication or paralanguage. (6, p.5)

Emotional muscle. The purposes of cross-cultural training are to: (1) develop in the student more independence of external sources of decision, information, problem definition, and motivation; (2) develop in the student the "emotional muscle" required to deal constructively with the strong feelings which are created by conflict and confrontation of values and attitudes; (3) enable him to make choices and committments to action in situations of stress and uncertainty; and (4) encourage him to use his own and others' feelings, attitudes, and values as information in defining and solving human problems. (24, p.442)

Relevance to Domestic Programs of Adult Education

Though this review may be useful as a guide to recent publications for the specialist in cross cultural training, it is primarily intended for the researcher and program planner in the general field of adult education, for I believe that the research and development rapidly accumulating in this area has pertinence and innumerable potential applications in adult education programs for the poor and culturally deprived segments of our own population, in community development, in residential education and many other parts of the field. Consider, for example, the kind of programs which may be implied by this simple statement from the report of the President's Commission on Civil Disorders.

> *"Harassment" or discourtesy may not be the result of malicious or discriminatory intent of police officers. Many officers simply fail to understand the effects of their actions because of their limited knowledge of the Negro community. Calling a Negro teenager by his first name may arouse resentment because many whites still refuse to extend to adult Negroes the courtesy of the title, "Mister." A patrolman may take the arm of a person he is leading to the police car. Negroes are more likely to resent this than whites because the action implies that they are on the verge of flight and may degrade them in the eyes of friends or onlookers.*

Or, from another source:

> *For the urban dwellers, rural living may be alien; for members of the middle class, experinece with the poor, angry, and the disadvantaged provides real confrontation.*

Or, consider the growing impatience of young adults with traditional educational methods:

> *There is a hunger for educational experiences which involve the whole person, which get to the "heart of the matter," which seem to have a more direct connection with life as it is lived in our relativistic, kinetic, peripatetic, crisis ridden society.*

The experiments with videotape self confrontation, programmed instruction "Culture Assimilator," on-site simulated environments and other techniques being developed in Peace Corps, military and other cross cultural programs may have direct relevance in programs for training police and correctional personnel, community action workers, and others whose effectiveness will depend on achieving a degree of cultural empathy with disadvantaged Americans.

Steps in the Research and Development Process

Useful as the new methods and techniques may be in adult education, however, the general mode of research attack on the cross cultural training problem may be equally instructive.

In our adult basic education programs, in vocational training for the disadvantaged and in other programs of urgent social priority, we are dismayed to find, just as the cross cultural trainers did, that our usual methods, however reinvigorated, simply do not work very well. We may be driven back, as they were, to study the problem more closely and to re-examine the knowledge masses in education and the behavioral sciences which underlie our adult education practices, before we, finally, emerge with the new methods effective to our present purpose.

It seems to me that we are, in fact, in many parts of adult education going through an analagous period of turbulent confrontation of new problems which lay fearful demands on our customary, comfortable ways of organizing and guiding adult learning. These challenges are most salient in our work with disadvantaged Americans, but are by no means confined to that area. Consider, for example, the remarkable demand from business, industry, technology and the professions for programs to up-grade skills on an almost continuing basis and in a spirit close to emergency. We are locked in engagement with many such new needs for education and training of adults from which there can be no retreat based on lack of resources, for these are being provided in radically increased spending for these purposes.

We may, therefore, find it interesting and instructive to observe how the confrontation process evolved in response to the similar need to improve training programs for cross cultural interaction. Though not surveyed explicitly in any particular document, the stages of the process can easily be re-constructed by anyone who reviews the literature of recent years.

1. Recognition of the problem and efforts to adjust traditional methods, e.g., to make lectures on human relations and cultural differences longer or more lively, to spend more time on this aspect of training, to find better trainers or to stress its urgency. "Everything in this handbook is as tactical as an 'op plan' or the manual on the Marine Rifle Squad," says the introduction to a Navy handbook on how to get along with the Vietnamese.

2. Recognition of failure. The authors seem in agreement that these adjustment efforts, however worthy, have not been adequate and that some drastically new training methods must be developed.

3. Renewed, closer examination of the problem. The cross cultural trainers have diligently collected thousands of particular examples of personal interaction which seemed critical in the success of foreign missions. These were examined, classified and studied to discern their common elements in order better to understand the exact nature of the training problem.

4. Efforts to conceptualize the problem and to find an analytical framework which would allow recourse to relevant basic research in the behavioral sciences. This led, for example, to a review on the role differentiation process in differing cultures and to a revival of interest in paralanguage and non-verbal communication.

5. Review of educational methods which have proved effective in similar situations. Some experts judged that the cross cultural training problem may be best attacked through some form of role playing or simulation; others judged that experience-based human relations methods would be useful. Thus, we find in the literature some excellent basic reviews in these areas, prepared with a view to applying these methods to the interaction training problems.

6. Experimentation and program development. New training techniques are now being tested using programmed instruction, videotape simulation exercises and other techniques with actual critical incidents collected from field experience as the program content.

I believe adult educators will be quick to adapt some of the techniques to similar cross cultural training problems we encounter in preparing leaders for work with the disadvantaged, in programs for re-establishing contact with the younger generation whose basic assumptions and modes of thinking sometimes seem as mystifying as those of any foreigner, and in many other programs outside our traditional province of intellectually oriented education for middle class clienteles.

And the general process the cross cultural trainers have followed may be a model for the large scale reassessment and revamping of adult education practice required if we are to break open new programs and new methods for bringing large numbers of poor, isolated and often resentful citizens into a fully functioning relationship with a modern, urban, industrial society. Our experience thus far in large scale programs of vocational training and adult basic education has shown how inadequate our present methods are and how engulfing are the educational problems of the culturally isolated. Still confident that adult education is a curative solution to these problems, we are now in stages two and three of the reassessment process-sober recognition of the inadequacy of present methods and closer examination of the exact nature of the educational problems of various culturally deprived groups. If the experience of the cross cultural trainers is a guide, we may still have much work and study to do before the most effective new methods of remedial education emerge.

Nature and Purpose of the Review

Innovative programs and new methods of training for cross cultural skills in interpersonal interaction are the focus of this review, which provides: (1) a bibliography with abstracts of documents, largely from the years 1966 to 1968; (2) a topical digest of the main points made in these documents, elaborated by quotations from the texts; and (3) an index to documents, or to sections of documents, which relate to each section of the review. Many topics tangential to the focus on problems and methods of training, emerge in the documents, but receive only cursory treatment in the digest. This is *not* a general review of literature about the Peace Corps, or conventional area studies, or programs for exchange of persons, or language training, though all of these topics appear as they relate to training for interaction skills.

Adult educators will note that the research and development reviewed here represents another contribution to our field by our "invisible colleagues," in this case the psychologists, military officers, university faculty members and others, who, quite unaware that they are contributing to adult education, have added to the growing body of experience and tested knowledge which underlies adult education practice.

All of the documents reviewed have been located by using the resources of the growing network of the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) and all have come routinely into the files of the ERIC Clearinghouse on Adult Education at Syracuse University. Most of the documents which are not available in standard published sources, may be obtained through ERIC or other sources in microfiche or hardcopy reproduction. A notice on availability precedes the bibliography.

For the general adult educator who wishes to keep up with research and development in the area of training for cross cultural interaction skills, this digest should provide an adequate condensation of the intellectual content of the documents, and, if he sees something of great interest or with potential application in his own work, the index will guide him directly to the documents he needsfor further exploration.

A terse running summary of the main points made in the 48 documents appears in this typeface double-spaced. Quotations from the texts elaborate these points. They are single-spaced and in two different typefaces, with sources identified by item number of the document in the bibliography and to the pages. In various sections, item numbers from the bibliography are inserted to indicate documents dealing explicitly with the topic summarized in that section.

II. THE NEED FOR MORE EFFECTIVE METHODS OF CROSS CULTURAL TRAINING

The number of Americans serving overseas in missions requiring effective personal communication has drastically increased in recent years and the urgency of the missions, especially those related to the Vietnam war, has mounted to crisis proportion. Failures, especially those dramatic incidents of the "ugly American" type, have led to general recognition that conventional training programs were not effective.

> *Increased cross-cultural contacts. The frequency of cross-cultural contacts has increased in the modern world. Mutual economic and military assistance between nations, the work of international organizations, and internalization of large corporations have led to countless occasions in which people of different cultural backgrounds have to work together, to negotiate, or to interact in some other way. It has been recognized that a task performed in a cross-cultural situation is likely to present more difficulties than when the same task is entrusted to a culturally homogeneous group. It is not surprising, therefore, that the problem of how to train people to interact effectively with people of another culture has become important and urgent.* (12, p.2)

> *Need for rapid training. Various government agencies and research organizations were visited and were asked what problems all have in common when they prepare Americans for contact and work with native personnel overseas. Our survey asked each agency for the goals of their culture-training program, the kinds of things taught, the methods used, and the problems faced by the training groups in achieving their aims. Two general findings came out of the survey: First, there is a definite requirement for rapid and effective training in cross-cultural skills. "Ugly American" incidents continue to damage American prestige and the U.S. image abroad. Current programs of intelligence briefings, remote area orientations and lectures on customs and habits are inadequate and sometimes cause more harm than good. In short, knowing what to do is not equivalent to doing what you know. Giving a man a lecture on do's and don'ts in a foreign country is equivalent to giving him a lecture on how to fly the B-52; in each case he might easily get a passing grade on a written test but his actual performance would be unacceptable. (23, p.3)*

As American business becomes ever more international in operation and perspective, executives and other workers must be trained for overseas duty.

> *Training international executives. In the process of setting up overseas operations, companies are finding that international business has unique characteristics. It is unusually complex and diverse because of the wide range of differences in political, cultural, and economic conditions. It is also highly dynamic and, at present, unfamiliar to many companies. Of the participants in this survey, approximately one-third of 150 major corporations-headquartered in more than 20 countries - consider themselves newcomers to international business.*
>
> *Several facts seem apparent: (1) International management requires executives with special abilities. (2) Qualified international executives have been - and probably will continue to be-scarce. (3) Many companies are aware of this shortage, but few of them have resolved the problem. (4) International executives undoubtedly will assume a more important role in the future. (2, foreward)*

> *Need for training programs. There are close to a million American businessmen and their families living abroad, and probably two hundred thousand of them are actually engaged in business. The number is increasing all the time and they carry on a large number of projects. American industries in Caracas, Venezuela, for example, have a budget of $600,000 each year for educational, artistic, and related programs. The Institute of International Education in a census found that ninety-seven American corporations brought to this country 4,800 trainees in a single year.*
>
> *The author's worldwide survey found little use of formal systems, rigid procedures, or extensive paperwork in connection with the development of international executives. Indeed, the majority of the international firms consulted do not have any well-defined plans for international development (in contrast to their thorough plans for executive development in the domestic operations) and have not named any specific executive or group to make such plans. (2, p.43)*

SEE: 2;26;45

AID and Other Federal Agencies

Technical assistance and other foreign aid programs have become an important instrument of American foreign policy.

> *Culture contact as foreign policy. The appointment of an Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs and the changes in the policies and operations that will flow from that appointment, reflect a major departure in the formulation and the conduct of American foreign policy. Educational and cultural activities are now set forth as a major instrument of foreign policy, to be joined with political and economic activities in sustaining and directing the position of the United States in world affairs.* (9, p.337)

> *Predicting successful adjustment. Although it is gradually becoming possible to make more reliable predictions concerning probable success or failure abroad, a great deal more research is needed in this regard. It is still far from easy to evaluate human beings in terms of their future reactions. There is much to indicate that a person who has successfully done a technical or professional job at home will not necessarily be able to do a similar good job at the same work in a different cultural situation. (19, 20, p.186-7)*

SEE: 9;32;33;35;45;47

Peace Corps

The Peace Corps has required large scale, costly, and rapid training.

> *In Program Year 1965, the Peace Corps trained in 58 different universities and with several non-academic organizations. The average Peace Corps training program under contract lasted approximately 11 weeks and cost $2,354 per trainee. In an attempt to provide more meaningful and realistic training for 1966-67, several new elements have been added which will increase the length of training to 12 weeks and enrich the training curriculum. Greater numbers of returned Volunteers and overseas staff members will be used. New and more intensive language techniques have been developed, moving language training up to approximately 1/3 of the total hours in the average training program. New material and case studies based on*

> *Volunteer experience are being developed; the staff-trainee ratio has been increased; the amount of time dedicated to practice teaching and field training either in the U.S. or in Canada, Mexico or Puerto Rico has been increased and the amount of training in the host country has also increased.*
>
> *All of these developments have raised the estimated cost per trainee in 1966-67 to $2,612.* (35, p.52)

SEE: 3;15;34;37;38;44;45

Military Programs

Military operations have changed drastically in the Vietnam war, where soldiers trained to fight are diverted in large numbers to pacification and other programs of advising or training the Vietnamese.

> *Non-shooting warfare. One of the "limits" in future limited war is that the U.S. soldier or airman, trained for everything from hand-to-hand combat to sophisticated, computerized command-and-control, will be prohibited from firing at all. He will be sent to another culture as a guide, instructor, trainer, and advisor. Many special training problems (as well as selection difficulties) arise in this context. Perhaps there is negative transfer when you train a man to be an excellent fighter or an expert in napalm bombing then frustrate him with a civic action assignment as a teacher. (23, p.4)*

> *Military role in development. The constructive role in national development possible to a nation's military establishment is not generally realized. To be sure, the military instrument, if not properly oriented, can be a negative force in society, characterized by stark authoritarianism. Partially as an inherent feature and increasingly by design, the Military Assistance Program contributes to an enlightened military attitude and to the role that the military structure plays in respect to political, economic, and social progress, particularly in the less-developed areas of the free world. There is an increasing awareness that military and economic assistance are interdependent variables and not necessarily alternatives.* (9, p.158)

> *Diversity of missions. The technical advisor overseas for short duration missions is faced with monumental problems, not the least of which involves effective interpersonal relations with those foreign nationals with whom he deals. The Air Force Mobile Training Team mission is to respond to requests for technical training from other countries. This mission requirement makes necessary close, frequent face-to-face contact between Americans and their counterparts. The American and native personnel typically involved in MTT*

> *work represent quite homogeneous samples from their respective cultures and thus the problems of providing training for the Americans are reduced according to individual variability. This comparison concerns the problems faced in training individuals for the Peace Corps or for the Foreign Service (7, p.1)*

> *Battlefield of values. The instructor/technical advisor is involved in virtually continuous contact with a counterpart in another country for a specified length of time and has explicit ends to accomplish during this period. A third type of assignment for American military personnel is that in Vietnam. This type of assignment is quite similar to that of the Korean conflict and certain aspects of World War 11. The type of training and preparation of Americans for the first kind of assignment is conducted by such agencies as the Foreign Service Institute and for the third kind through normal combat readiness military procedures. The second type of assignment is one of vital importance and requires the greatest scrutiny; for upon the personnel acting as instructors and advisors falls the heavy responsibility of establishing strong, productive bonds of friendship and communication, while at the same time increasing the technical skill of people from the so-called emerging countries. This is the battlefield upon which the values of liberty, tolerance, and self-improvement are practiced. They must be practiced well. (6, p.1)*

SEE: 7;23;27;29;45

Voluntary Organizations Missions

Hundreds of voluntary agencies support community development and other work in foreign countries. The pioneers in this type of activity, the missionaries of the various church denominations, are still active in many parts of the world.

> *Role of voluntary organizations. In a free society such as ours, private institutions, foundations, the Institute of International Education and its sister organizations, and private business have a very important role to play in cultural aid to underdeveloped countries.*
>
> *There is no single institution in this group that is predominant as is the government. But in the aggregate, these institutions have considerable influence, and it is important that we understand the nature of this influence and the methods by which it is exerted. (9, p.285)*

> Missionary movement. American religious organizations have, of course, been active abroad for at least 150 years. Although their primary purpose has been to spread Christianity in non-Christian countries, they have established schools, colleges, and hospitals. In recent years, these missionary activities, which are part of America's cultural relations, have really become large-scale. A 1954 report made to the House of Representatives showed that Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish organizations were then contributing over $120 million to programs of a technical assistance nature. Today the estimated contribution of all private nonprofit organizations is close to $200 million. This exceeds the total spent by the United States Government on this type of activity. There are also estimated to be four times as many Americans abroad carrying on technical assistance activities on private funds (some twenty thousand) as there are on government funds. (9, p.290)

SEE: 45

Universities

Universities in the post war period, in addition to providing training for other agencies, have developed their own foreign assistance programs which they directly administer, often in cooperation with counterpart institutions in the foreign country.

SEE: 8;45

111. CONDITIONS AFFECTING THE DESIGN OF CROSS CULTURAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

Much has been learned by the cross cultural trainers in recent years from the concerted attack on the multitude of problems which arise when programs must be developed in haste (with a general air of emergency) and in areas where past experience is a poor guide to action. Analagous conditions increasingly prevail in programs of adult basic education, in MDTA training, in the new Community Education programs sponsored by Title I of the Higher Education Act and in other program planning situations.

Diverse Objectives

Since cross cultural assignments take so many persons to so many different cultures for such varying purposes, the problems of interpersonal communication trainees may encounter in the field seem almost infinitely varied. The concepts of "culture shock" and "culture fatigue", constantly invoked in the literature, cover a variety of emotion laden challenges, each involving a particular problem of particular persons in a particular context. A random assortment from the plethora of anecdotal accounts, stories and critical incidents in the literature may illustrate this diversity. Some of the incidents involve foreigners in the United States, since these are thought to be particularly instructive.

> *Culture identity.* *The very term "American" created confusion for some trainees. They had been accustomed to identifying themselves as Americans (in contrast with the members of groups outside the United States). But what does one call himself in contrast with American Indians? Some trainees experimented with the term "non-Indian," thereby assuming an implicitly inferior status. Some experimented with the term "whites," but this term seemed too general. Some tried the term "White American," but this term left out Negro trainees. The process was noticeably disrupting. Trainees learned that one's identity is shaken when one begins*

tampering with something seemingly so slight as the label of one's group memberships. (21, p.8-9)

Food customs. I was affected a little by constipation. I think it is because of the lack of spices in the food. Very often at home we get in contact with spices and we need it. One of the things which we particularly appreciated was the chance to have an Indian dinner after about 14 days in the States. We had not had any particular kind of Indian food until this, and this we liked very much. (31, p.19)

Suspicion. In the course of research in the Northern Province of Sierea Leone, I repeatedly encountered the belief, most often among literate Africans who had little or no direct contact with the Peace Corps, that the Volunteers were actually spies from the neocolonialist in the United States, which coveted the wealth of Sierra Leone. Some Africans thought it outrageous that their government was paying living allowances to American spies who taught school and worked in other government departments as a cover-up for their sinister activities. Sierra Leone, of course, does not pay the living allowances of the Corpsmen, but it is hard to convince some Sierra Leoneans of this. (44, p.176)

Safety. I had some interesting and shocking experiences in Chicago. I was returning to the Chicago University where I was staying -- the time was about 8:30. I thought that I must get out of the train one station ahead and walk around to see the city all alone. I was walking and walking and walking. After some time I thought that I must ask the way back to Chicago University and I asked a man the way for International House. Then he told me that "it is better for you to return, I do not know the way. This is not the place for you to walk all alone." I got a little scared, I walked back, came to another place where I saw a young lady. I asked her the way to International House and she asked me whether I was from Pakistan. I told her that I am from India. She told me how "my sister may know the way, and you may come into the house," and she made an attitude to flirt with me. I got absolutely nervous. I told her I would "just go to the other intersection and ask some other people rather than come into your house." At once I waved to the next cab, taxi coming on, and got into the cab and escaped from the place and came to the International House. In the train also I saw a man who was absolutely drunk, standing there dancing with a bottle in his hand; and even though there was a sign in the train that no smoking was allowed he was smoking and dancing and slapping me on the back. There also I got nervous. (31, p.17-18)

Personal values. Philippine social interaction is, to an impressive degree, based on what the Volunteers later came to call "SIR," or "smooth interpersonal relationships." Under such conditions, "Just be perfectly frank," however pleasing it might have been to the American individual, was a devastating bit of advice. (44, p.29)

> *The "third" culture. ... the task of gaining cultural proficiency is further complicated when a "third" culture must also be learned. This is the culture borrowed, with adaptations, from the former European colonial ruler. Among our thirteen countries, there are only three where this is not a problem: the Philippines, Thailand, and Afghanistan. Generally speaking, the PCV must concentrate his energies on this third culture first, rather than on the indigenous culture, in good part because the third culture is used to a significant extent by the political, governmental, and administrative elite. In four of the ten ex-colonial cases, learning the third culture entails knowing a European language that is often new to the PCV. Thus Spanish is necessary for Volunteers in Peru and Bolivia, and French for Tunisia and Morocco; and in the former Italian portion of Somalia PCVs find very useful any facility they might develop in Italian. This extra learning burden adds heavily to the difficulty of gaining proficiency in the "home" language and culture of the local people. The problem is compounded even further where members of the elite - such as the Spanish speakers in Peru - tend to look down on their compatriots who are able to speak only the indigenous tongue.* (44, p.307)

> *Cleanliness. Americans frequently become obsessed with cleanliness, finding everything dirty and unfit for use. Interestingly enough, the tendency to see the new environment and its people as filthy is a common feature of culture shock. The Middle-Easterner considers as dirty the American habit of wearing street shoes in the home (especially when young children are playing about on the rug), our rather sketchy habits of washing after the use of the toilet, and finally, arm-pit commercials on TV make the Middle Easterner turn ill.* (23, p.6)

Unpredictability

The intrusion of fortuitous events beyond anyone's control further complicates many foreign missions, leading, unless the trainee is properly prepared, to frustration, retreat and resentment. A random selection of section headings from a report of Peace Corps experience in thirteen countries may illustrate this:

> *political rioting; opposition from the expatriates; armed revolt; British colonial heritage; crisis and expulsion at Vicos; international politics intrudes; unfortunate timing; the crisis; volunteers are expelled.*

Nature and Motive of Trainees

The age, background, expectations and motives of the trainees affect the training program, especially when they conflict with the purposes of the trainer or the inherent requirements of the cross cultural assignments. Despite all efforts to improve selection policies, these problems remain. Dedication to hard work and favorable attitudes toward the host culture appear to improve both training and performance.

> *"Helping" orientation. The opportunity to help is one of the strongest appeals of the Peace Corps, and properly so. At the same time, it is one of the greatest perils. Indeed, the Volunteer's helping relationship is in some ways more difficult than the psychotherapist's. The latter usually enjoys the advantage that his patient has come to him and requested help. By contrast, the Peace Corps Volunteer is dealing with school teachers who usually have not asked for his help; the asking was done for them by officials often far removed from or even unknown to them. Indeed, many Philippine school teachers do not feel that they need help. (44, p.31)*

> *Hard work. The chief contributing factor to the successes which were experienced in the early training programs was the quality of the Peace Corps trainees. Highly motivated and extremely eager to learn, the trainees were willing to do the hard work demanded by the intensive, accelerated educational program.* (37, p.34)

> *Alley cats or tame tabbies? The decision to entice student "activists" to join the Peace Corps was a "high-risk-high-gain" kind of decision, even as it has since been modified. Nowadays, the Peace Corps seems to be saying, "When we go out on the porch and whistle we're hoping that a few alley cats will enter the door along with the tame tabbies who have been showing up."*
>
> *Now alley cats can be difficult to handle: irreverent, often outspoken, hostile to the Establishment and sometimes just about everything else, at war with the world, they are more inclined to sit on the back fence and yowl than to curl up on the sofa and purr. But there is all that energy. . . (25, p.30)*

Attitude toward host culture. It was found that subjects with a positive attitude toward culture "X" displayed a higher rate of learning under self-confrontation than did subjects with neutral or negative attitudes. While this finding is an initial one and must be interpreted with care, it may indicate that attitude acts here as a motivational variable, and that the positive attitude subjects actually tried harder. Alternatively, a positive attitude may have reduced the discomfort of a first interaction with a stranger from another culture; the negative and neutral attitude groups may have experienced more tension and anxiety, which hampered their performances slightly. (5, p.35)

Age. Age was also a concern of these executives. In the companies that participated, the optimal age for a man's first assignment abroad is about 35 years. According to one participant, this makes it possible for an executive to have ten years of postgraduate experience - a reasonable period of time for him to become mature, learn the company's policies and practices, gain flexibility, and become seasoned in the practice of management (provided that his company has an executive development program). (2, p.70)

"To help other people." To assess the degree of congruence between the goals of the candidates and those of the trainers, trainees were asked, when they arrived, why they had volunteered for the Peace Corps. The major motivation expressed was "to help other people." This motive frequently was phrased in terms of improving living conditions, but sometimes was stated as helping others to help themselves. The next most frequently expressed motivation was "to help my country." This motive was phrased often in the ask-not tradition; i.e., "Ask not what your country can do for you but what you can do for your country." The third most frequently expressed motivation concerned the desire to make some contribution toward improving international relations: i.e., toward seeing the Peace Corps as a significant part of United States' foreign policy and as having some potential for reducing world tensions. (21, p.6)

Conflict of goals. The great majority of motives expressed by trainees for joining the Peace Corps were outerfocused or nonself-focused. Even the self-related goals tended to be stated in terms of career and accomplishment, with less than 20 per cent of the assignees stating any form of self-development as one of their goals.

Given this tendency for trainees to be nonself-focused, how could one expect to achieve any mutuality of goals when the trainers' goals were so clearly focused on increasing self-awareness? (21, p.6)

> *Family adjustment.* Agencies which send employees abroad tend nowadays to consider the prospective applicant and his family as a unit, and try to determine not only the man's but the wife's and the family's readiness for life and work overseas. In the words of one Foreign Service officer, "The adjustment and training for overseas for wives is as important as the adjustment and training of the men. I have seen men overseas, doing well at their jobs, become unhappy and dissatisfied because their wives became dissatisfied." (19 & 20, p.168)

Difficulty of Evaluation

Lack of criteria for adequate performance and means of measuring performance in the field makes objective evaluation of cross cultural training programs difficult. Distance, the transitory nature of the projects and other practical problems make even routine subjective feedback difficult.

> *Lack of objective criteria.* In all training techniques presently in use for overseas assignment preparation, there exists no thorough-going objective criteria for assessing the effectiveness of performance in cross-cultural settings. The nature of such positions as high-level diplomatic staff, etc., make such identification of training requirements or criteria difficult at best, and at worst, nearly impossible. However, much of the work undertaken by Americans overseas has an identifiable end and time span. This is particularly true of a certain type of military mission, Mobile Training Teams. (6, p.6)

> *Peace Corps effectiveness.* An evaluation of the quality of the training programs during the first two years of the Peace Corps should first record that four thousand Volunteers were, in fact, trained for overseas service, and the record indicates that they generally did function effectively. (37, p.34)

> *Traditional tests of little value.* The results of this study tend to validate Smith's and Stein's work with the Peace Corps, showing that the evaluation by faculty or staff of trainees in a passive academic situation has little or no relevance to performance in a rural foreign area. Also, traditional personality and interest tests have little, if any, predictive validity. Values,attitudes, self-image and orientation to the future seem to be more predictive, but the values and attitudes are not always the ones theory might lead us to expect. A cosmopolitan, charge-oriented career-minded, slightly-rebellious personality and character would seem to perform best in rural areas. (47, p19)

The documents reviewed contain only one evaluation study based on observations of subsequent performance in the field, but it is an interesting one. Using the Activities Index and the College Characteristics Index, the investigators found drastic differences in the psychological attributes of 63 Peace Corps training programs and meaningful relationships between these characteristics and such indices as (1) attrition rates in training; (2) selection board ratings; and (3) overseas field evaluations.

> Group Life versus Isolation. Top programs set a pattern for group interaction that stresses outgoing, friendly social participation and a high degree of mutuality.
>
> Intellectual Climate. This measure reflected training unit efforts to provide a well-rounded and integrated intellectual experience. These units were also found to have been emphasizing a commitment to social action and to improvement of man's condition.
>
> Personal Dignity. The best programs were characterized by student personnel practices that kept direct supervision to a minimum and maximized the autonomy and personal responsibilty of each individual.
>
> Achievement Standards. Trainees were encouraged to maintain high standards of personal achievement. The most outstanding programs demanded high levels of performance, offered many different ways to demonstrate competence, but were also relatively flexible in their requirements.
>
> Orderliness. The poorest programs were low in the four preceding factors, and high on others suggesting a preoccupation with bureaucratic detail. They were more compulsively organized, and far more restrictive and contravening in student affairs.
>
> Impulse Control. The administrative style in the poorer programs was authoritarian, stressing deference and constraint. A Calvinist ethos seemed to prevail at these institutions.
>
> Isolation versus Group Life. The group atmosphere in these programs was found to be unfriendly and non-participating. People were not supportive of one another, socially withdrawn, and the general outlook seemed excessively humorless and work-oriented. (38, p.1-3)

> *Characteristics of effective programs.* High overseas effectiveness ratings are associated with 1) training program efforts to provide a well rounded intellectual experience emphasizing a [commitment] to social action 2) training program press for administrative order 3) a personality pattern of power striving, aggressiveness, impulsiveness, expressiveness, need to help others and lower respect for authority. This suggests that if programs that emphasize order and structure and programs which emphasize integrated intellectual experience are different types of programs, they each can produce Volunteers whose overseas performance is highly rated. (38, p.67)

Trainer Shortage

Persons qualified to conduct cross cultural human relations training are in short supply, because it requires both up-to-date personal knowledge of the foreign culture and uncommon teaching skills. Training institutions, particularly universities, have been sometimes unwilling and often unable because of budget and lead time problems to go outside their own organization to find the best qualified persons. Nonetheless, qualified experts have shown great willingness to drop other responsibilities for such service and much credit is given them for program successes. Returning Peace Corps Volunteers play an important role as trainers of future groups and training programs exist to prepare them for this role.

> *Dedication of trainers. Other noteworthy assets were the dedication and ability of the Peace Corps training officers and the genuine eagerness of the training institutions to do a good job. University personnel involved in administering training programs were perhaps the hardest working people on campus, often matching the long hours put in by the trainees. (37, p.34)*

> *Role of area study centers.* The second method is that of obtaining relevant cultural information from and through the resources of centers of excellence in the academic community. There are many area study institutes, such as Southeast Asia study centers, at large universities throughout the country. The information and competence available at these institutes are based upon years of study and field research in various areas of the world. Whether any sustained and fruitful collaboration with these academic centers is possible is currently under study. (29, p.4)

"Practical man" as teacher. It would be a mistake to assume that persons with practical experience are necessarily qualified by virtue of that experience to teach and communicate it. This is a particularly unjustified assumption when the proposed training is highly inductive. The "practical man" has most readily at his disposal a fund of experience, anecdotes, and "war stories" which purport to illustrate to the trainee how to handle various relatively concrete and specific situations in the particular foreign culture in which the trainer obtained his own experience. The value of the experienced person is not in these concrete and often undigested experiences, but in his potential to conceptualize the cross-cultural learning experience in terms which can be applied to the design and conduct of experience-based learning. (25, p.26)

Lack of experts. Unfortunately, the training program did not provide the kind of intensive background on the culture of the host country that is so vital to each individual's understanding and eventual adaptation. While the Peace Corps attempted to obtain properly qualified teachers, it nonetheless confronted the stubborn fact that experts on Somalia are scarce. As a consequence , few of those involved in the training program had had any previous experience in the country. (44, p.129)

Sources of trainers. Over the past five years many thousands of specialists have participated in Peace Corps training programs. Most have been drawn from university and college campuses, but many have come from government, industry, labor and the professions, not only in the United States, but also from many foreign countries. It has become possible to identify and evaluate expertise never before thought to be available in the United States. The Peace Corps and the training institutions have now developed an "inventory" of the resources needed to prepare Americans to function effectively abroad. (37, p.39)

Use of returnees. In the past, returned Volunteers often have not been fully utilized - partly because of their own failure to understand some of the complexities of training; the training institution's failure to utilize them meaningfully; inadequate means of identifying and recommending to the training institutions those who would be most effective, and partly because of the Peace Corps' failure to communicate fully the importance of the returned Volunteer in the training program. The varying characteristics of training sites and the common feeling among returned Volunteers that their Peace Corps experience alone qualified them as experts on the various aspects of the host country have also occasionally contributed to creating serious problems,resulting in hard feeling and strained relations. (3, p.3)

Program Integration and Continuity

Training for cultural awareness, self awareness and the other elements of personal interaction skills is, of course, only one component in programs, often brief, which must typically also include language instruction, technical training and other orientation and indoctrination. Integrating the programs and keeping the elements in perspective, therefore, is difficult. Follow-up or supplementary training in the field is sometimes provided.

> *Coordination of program elements. The problem of the articulation of different components of a training program appears to me to be endemic in the Peace Corps appraoch to training. It must be resolved by careful, planned coordination of the various components of a program, especially area studies, American studies, world affairs and communism, and technical studies. Although overall coordination of the Syracuse training program appeared adequate at the time, subsequent problems that emerged in the field indicated much to be desired.*
>
> *Starting out with pious hopes and expectations about "working together," which were manifested primarily in ritualistic staff meetings, each segment of the training staff would proceed along its own lines and pay relatively little attention to other segments. Thus, for example, in the Tanganyika Two program (and in a number of others in which I have participated) area studies instructors would prefer that world politics instructors "stay off" the African continent. Similarly, American studies teachers were not overjoyed when area studies teachers used American examples for comparative purposes in explaining life in the host country. (44, p.146)*

The early training programs were commonly made up of eight identifiable components. These consisted of the following:

> *1. Technical Studies - to include the knowledge and skills required to perform the assigned job overseas.*
>
> *2. Area Studies - to include the historical, political, economic, and cultural aspects of the host country.*
>
> *3. Language - to include knowledge of the indigenous language, basic vocabulary, conversational practice, and technical terms appropriate to the assignment.*

> 4. American Studies - to include an analysis of democratic institutions, United States history, and the current social and economic scene.
>
> 5. World Affairs - to include contemporary international problems, Communist strategy and tactics, and America's role in the world scene.
>
> 6. Health and Medical Training - to include first aid, personal hygiene, and preventive measures required in the assigned area.
>
> 7. Physical Training and Recreation - to include personal conditioning as well as the practice of American and host-country games.
>
> 8. Peace Corps Orientation - to include aims and organization of the Peace Corps and the Volunteers' role within it. (37, p.33)

> *Integration of trainees' education.* Several universities have recently initiated experimental programs aimed at fully integrating Peace Corps training and service into the acquisition of an undergraduate or graduate degree, therby making the Peace Corps experience clearly part of the Volunteer's educational development. (37, p.44)

Conflicts of Institutional Purpose

Salient in the Peace Corps training literature is commentary, often somewhat emotional, on the conflict perceived by many faculty members between "training for action" and the traditional university education for understanding. The universities, of course, are also interested in designing research components into the training and in developing continuity so that Peace Corps work could, in time, contribute to the on-going academic growth of the institutions.

> *"Thinkers" versus "doers."* There likewise were major areas of disagreement between the Peace Corps and the academic community over the purpose of training. Greatly oversimplified, it was a manifestation of the age-old debate on the supposed distinction between the "thinkers" and the "doers". The general objective of the Peace Corps was to relate the content of the training program as closely as possible to the Volunteer's specific overseas assignment. The approach of most universities was based on the concept of broadly educating the trainees in the

> liberal arts tradition. The Peace Corps insisted on a degree of "relevancy of instruction to the overseas assignment." which many universities felt was neither possible nor "educational." University professors tended to emphasize insight and understanding, whereas the Peace Corps wanted emphasis placed on "action." (37, p.36)

> Relations of training to institutional goals. When a university enjoys stability as a training site, there are a number of side-benefits that might result. An inspiring example is the case of Northern Illinois University at DeKalb. Not long ago, this was a teacher training institution. Then suddenly it became a university, and began experiencing the usual growing pains. As a university, it was eager to build up its resources for graduate study, and to increase its international involvements. Through a series of improbable events it was awarded the training contract for Malaya One. Since then it has trained virtually every Peace Corps project for peninsular Malaya, plus a number of other contingents bound for Southeast Asia. Coupled with this Peace Corps involvement, the university has also established an interdisciplinary Southeast Asia area studies program, and has already commenced to award graduate degrees in various disciplines, where the student's area focus is on Southeast Asia. Quite possibly, if it had not been for the Peace Corps, this area program would never have been started. In any case, the Peace Corps has helped this program materially. A number of Volunteers trained at Northern, for example, have returned there at the end of their overseas service to pursue graduate work connected with Southeast Asia, often on fellowships form the university. Thus has the Peace Corps engaged in unintended but valuable "institution building," and helped to bring an awareness of the problems of the developing world to a small prairie city that until a generation ago was quite isolated from international concerns. (44, p.334)

> Research. One of the most persistent objectives of many academic institutions has been to build a research dimension into their training relationship with the Peace Corps. From the viewpoint of the university, the training of Peace Corps Volunteers is essentially a public service function. In order to make the Peace Corps relationship a high-priority activity for the university community on a continuing basis, a research component needed to be developed. (37, p.40)

Administrative Problems

Complex programs, mounted in haste often in circumstances so fluid that neither students nor objectives can be clearly specified, will inevitably encounter frustrating practical problems. We may assume that such problems arise in any training situation, though the following examples seem all to be university complaints against the early period of the Peace Corps. The emotional tone of these discussions ranges from tolerant understanding and accommodation to bitter criticism.

> *Lead time. One of the chief problems for the training institution was the lack of sufficient lead time to plan and staff a training program properly. (37, p.35)*

> *In [an] effort to provide the training institution with sufficient lead time to plan adequately an appropriate curriculum, the Peace Corps adopted a new policy in 1965 which authorizes a university to appoint an "advance project director," who would begin the planning for a training program several months before the actual commencement of training.* (37, p.40)

> *Poor Information. Lack of advance information regarding the education and experience level of the trainees also presented the problems for the training institution. Much of the program had to be planned for an unknown clientele, and, consequently, frequent changes had to be made during the course of training. (37, p.35)*

> *Action orientation. The Volunteer was also under pressure from another source: Washington. The headquarters staff were intelligent, dedicated, hard-driving men who had their own notions of what a Volunteer should be and do. These notions were derived partly from American cultural experience, and partly from AID experience overseas. Although most of these officials had virtually no understanding of Philippine needs and traditions, they emphasized action, impact and results that they could see, touch, and quantify. Very few could truly appreicate the tedium, the frustration, and the build-in limitations of the Volunteer's field situation.* (44, p.29)

> *Haste and confusion. The early Peace Corps days were marked by an almost indescribable haste and confusion. Most of the key officials in Washington's Training Division were lacking in intimate non-Western field experience. They were learning their jobs as they went. To get the job done quickly, they had no choice but to give wide scope to the universities that contracted to do the training, and then hope for the best. We at Pennsylvania State University were thus not only permitted, but also encouraged, to improvise and innovate. (44, p.20)*

SEE: 3;15;21;34;35;37;38;44;47

IV. CONCEPTUALIZING THE TRAINING TASK

The new methods of training for cross-cultural interaction skills outlined in Section Five have not been stumbled onto by chance, but are the result of a protracted process of detailed re-examination of the exact nature of the training problem and mobilizing basic knowledge of education processes for the research attack on the problem.

Collection and Codification of Critical Incidents

It is through the collection and analysis of a large number of somewhat typical incidents or episodes encountered in cross cultural interaction that researchers and program designers hope to grasp the nature of the task for which they must train. This information may come from the usual sources developed in area studies or from subject experts, but primarily it must come from the reports of participants and field observers, if it is to be pertinent and current. These reports also provide feedback to the training programs and become the content of training exercises. Examination and classification of these raw materials have led to various hypotheses about the essential nature of the training task which in turn suggest the general methods the researcher estimates will most likely be successful.

> *Analyzing cross-cultural change. The case histories were originally selected for the purpose of developing a system for analyzing the process of directed cross-cultural change. Each case history describes an effort by a change agent or agents to introduce a new idea or technique into a culture other than his own. Most are instances of technical change agents working in the foreign aid field and thus are cross-cultural. The authors have been interested in the descriptions of actual efforts rather than in the theorizing contained in the case histories. The cases were selected because there was detailed information on the effort to introduce a specific innovation rather than because of their theoretical significance. The authors have selected what would normally be called projects*

rather than programs. That is, delimited efforts in which the interaction of the change agents and the recipients could be assessed. (33, p.1-2)

Cultural "atlas". Two data collection techniques employing secondary sources of information on other cultures are being investigated. The first of these involves the development of survey instruments--such as questionnaire and interview schedules for use with foreign citizens and with servicemen returned from countries of interest--and content analysis systems for searching written materials. Information gathered in this manner will be brought together in the form of a "cultural atlas," the substance of which could form the basis for the content of training programs. One of the main questions this study will answer is whether meaningful information of a cross-cultural nature, suitable for training usage, can be obtained using military personnel with minimal training in the social sciences; or whether these are of such a complex and equivocal nature that only well-trained experts with years of study and participation in a specific culture are able to obtain and interpret it. (29, p.3)

Real incidents as training content. Continued research will involve a shift from highly controlled laboratory studies to actual experimental training programs to be conducted with military personnel before their deployment overseas. This future work will involve certain difficulties not present in the laboratory. First, there is the problem of training content. A contrived, fictitious array of behaviors, as in the present study, will not do. No training technique, no matter how well suited to developing required skills in the trainee, will be effective unless a great amount of relevant, correct, and current knowledge is available about the specific skills that should be taught to an Air Force advisor assigned to any given country. (5, p.36)

SEE: 14;23;29;43

Conceptual Framework

If large numbers must be trained, quickly, and for a variety of cultural contexts, training cannot be provided for every one of the disparate situations which may arise in the field. Thus, researchers and program designers are groping for the conceptual categories which will reveal the nature of the training problem.

To what extent is the training required of an intellectual nature and therefore amenable to the usual methods used in education? Is the problem basically one of understanding the customs and cultural patterns of the host society? Is it critical awareness of the largely unconscious assumptions of American society? Or is it essentially a matter of self awareness, the knowing of oneself in a particular cultural context?

The general purposes judged salient are variously stated: perception of cultural relativity; self awareness; sensitivity to feelings and values of others; understanding American culture; development of self reliance and emotional stamina.

> *Alternative training goals. There is much less agreement as to what the cognitive and behavioral objectives of training should be. However, competent analysts tend to suggest greater emphasis on the following:*
>
> *Understanding of interaction processes (as contrasted with knowledge about the foreign culture)*
> *Empathic awareness and understanding of the values, assumptions, and attitudes of the host country people*
> *Insight into the cultural basis on one's own values, assumptions, and attitudes*
> *Understanding and acceptance of the roles called for in the assignment, and*
> *Skills and techniques which will promote success in these roles*
>
> (27, p.3)

> *American value assumptions. The various dimensions representing assumptions and values fall into five groupings. 1. The first one may be called perception of the self and the individual. In American culture the dominant perception is of an autonomous self apart from other people and apart from the world. The self, and the individual, is defined as human, of a certain sex, and perhaps in terms of very broad social roles, such as adult or husband. 2. The perception of the world is separate from perception of the individual. The typical American does not have a strong desire to integrate with nature, nor does he usually possess the Hindu idea that man, animals, plants, and all of the world are made out of the same basic stuff. 3. The modality of motivation dominant in American culture is achievement pursued through the social technique of competition. It is through achievement that most Americans attain full definition and meaning of the self. A man is what a man achieves. 4. The modality of relations to others typical of most Americans is based on equality. Despite glaring exception, Americans tend to see others as basically equal, and indirectly, because of the perceived equality, often consider others in a depersonalized way.*

5. The dominant form of activity for most Americans is doing in distinction to being or being-in-becoming. These other two characteristics typify the oriental or the Latin American to a greater degree than Americans. (42,p.296)

Subjective culture. We summarized the responses of Americans and Greeks to a variety of instruments. We discovered that these may be described in terms of certain basic themes that are important regardless of the nature of the instrument. Thus, in the work on stereotypes, semantic differential perception of key concepts, antecedent-consequent meaning of key concepts, and role perceptions, the basic contrast between Greek and American subjective cultures seems to repeat itself. Specifically, the Greek ingroup-outgroup distinction and the greater salience of the social self that characterizes Greek subjective culture, may be seen in the Greek responses to all these instruments.

Thus, the present paper has shown that subjective culture may be analyzed through the use of several instruments that give consistent results and "social reality" as seen by people from different cultures may be determined. Future research must focus on effect of differences in subjective culture on interpersonal behavior. Work currently in progress is aimed at a clarification of the relationships between subjective culture and interpersonal behavior. (46, p.57)

Role differentiation within cultures. In order to train people to deal effectively with persons from another culture, it appears necessary to identify cross-cultural differences which are critical to the working of culturally heterogeneous groups. A theoretical analysis of the development of role differentiation, within and between social systems, in traditional and modern cultures, leads to the hypotheses that traditional cultures stress differentiation of the roles of the same system, while modern culture tends to empathize differentiation of comparable roles of different systems. (12, p.i)

Interaction skills as behavior. In the development of training techniques for cross-cultural interaction skill training, Edward Hall's views of cultural determination in social interaction, labeled "proxemics," have stimulated the treatment of interaction skills as complex motor and verbal behaviors subject to modification. That is, for the specific type of training described, it has been convenient not to treat the cognitive aspects of interpersonal relations and to deal directly with culture as a collection of behavioral prescriptions,i.e., mannerisms, gestures, customs, etc. This approach has allowed for specific criteria to be established for effective performance in a given role-play sequence. (7, p.2)

Information seeking and problem solving. In cross-cultural training designs, problems should be constructed so that their definition and solution require the problem solver to develop information from the persons who are present with him in the problem situation.

Because information and theory which are not used in the problem-solving process will not be readily available to the learner when he must solve problems under stress, *information is not presented which is irrelevant to the solution of real problems which the learner is asked to solve in the here-and-now.*

It is clear that authority must not be used to deprive the learner of the opportunity to have his own experience. In general, he is not provided with information, but encouraged to seek it; he is not given solutions, but asked to come to conclusions on his own; he is not told what action to take or how to take it, only that action is expected of him.

The learner's need for expert help is less to provide information about the *content* of the other culture than to teach the problem-solving *processes* and to develop the feeling-thinking linkages which are primary goals of our proposed training designs.

In the training situation the learner should be confronted with problem-solving situation forcing him to make choices among competing values which have consequences for his relationships with others in the training situation.

Training situations should require that discussion and analysis lead to decision and action on the part of the trainee. This would imply, for example, that even the best led "discussion group" is only half a training situation, because it does not lead to action. (24, p.442-444)

Middle-class, male culture as norm. The first step in developing the training approach was to adapt various concepts to be used in constructing a schemata of American culture with which the trainees could identify as individuals. Some of the basic sources used were the works of F. Kluckhohn, C. Kluckhohn, Nakamura, Lee, Arensberg and Niehoff, Hallowell, Foster, Glenn, and Mead. Middle-class, male American culture was adopted as the cultural variation of Americans most suitable for engaging the identity of the greatest number of trainees that we envisioned training. Those aspects of this culture that seemed relevant for overseas experience were then conceptualized according to norms of behavior, values, assumptions, and cognitive forms. Since these constructs contain infelicities of labeling, it is important to indicate their function in describing American culture.

Norms of behavior refer to stereotyped and relatively predictable behavior that is easily observed. Manner of dress, typical greetings, and variations in kinesics and paralanguage are examples.

Values and assumptions refer to cognitive predispositions of the individual. Values are relatively concrete, discrete, and specific; for instance, the American values of private property, physical comfort, and welfare, as well as the insturmental approach to action. Values are optative, containing the quality of outghtness, and as cognitions are relatively available to the awareness of the individual. Assumptions represent the cognitive predispositions of the individual employed to pattern the phenomenological world and are usually considered to be an aspect of the world itself and not cognitive impositions upon it.

Thus for Americans, the cognitive form of time may usually be inferred as lineal. A cyclic concept of time, or a concrete time-space concept, is less typical. American concepts of planning, progress, preventive measures in health and technology, and orientation to the future may be seen to be associated with a lineal concept of time. (39, p.2,3)

Emotional loosening of cultural bonds. An understanding of the cognitive confrontation and of contrast-American culture is not purely an intellectual matter. Also involved is the individual's ability of self-confrontation, the ability to take a dispassionate view of the self as a cultural being. The path to this point of observation is as much emotional as intellectual. Thus we observe in the simulation a period of confusion on the part of the participants as they progress through various scenes. Their confidence in themselves, as perhaps their trust in cultural absolutes, is shaken. This experience appears to represent a loosening of cultural and personal moorings, which hopefully is the prelude to a genuine acceptance of relativism of American cultural predispositions. If the simulation can bring about this effect, it is apparent that it can function in a dual role: to precipitate the emotional loosening and to set the stage for the acquisition of a new cognitive frame of reference. In terms of training procedures, the dual roles of the simulation mean that it can be used at the beginning of training for its emotional impact, or towards the end of training as the final synthesis of cross-cultural understanding. (42 p.302)

SEE: 6;10;19;20;24;27;39

Recourse to Basic Educational Research

Depending on the analytical framework adopted, researchers and program planners then go to the seemingly relevant body of social science or educational research and experience to evoke principles which may now be applied to the cross cultural training problem.

Three of these efforts are of such outstanding excellence and potential usefulness that I think they should be specifically pointed out. They are: a research review on imitation and modeling by Otto Zinser which includes a section summarizing knowledge about this subject in relation to adults (42); (2) a compact summary of knowledge and experience in various forms of human relations training by Robert J. Foster and Jack Danielian (13); (3) an exemplary analysis by Roger Harrison and Richard L. Hopkins of the differences in assumptions and design principles common in higher education and those judged most effective in cross cultural and community development work (24).

> *Human relations training. The overall advantages of human relations training may be summarized as follows:*
>
> *(1) The kind of learning which takes place cannot be effectively achieved through more traditional and familiar approaches to training.*
> *(2) Specific knowledge of the trainees's overseas destination is not essential. This permits the early training of units which can then be placed on call for overseas work with little or no advance notice. Subsequent area study of a specific country is likely thereafter to be more meaningfully pursued.*
> *(3) The aim of the training is to provide the basis for continued future learning. Because this learning involves understanding of basic interpersonal and group processes as well as cross-cultural, the training has implications for the trainee's entire career. To the extent that performance on work assignments involves interpersonal and interactional skills, human relations training becomes germane to their accomplishment. (13, p.30)*

> *Imitation and identification. Two forms of imitation based on the observation of a model have been widely recognized. In one, the learning of a new response by matching or copying the model's response usually occurs in the presence of the model; in the other the imitative response occurs in the absence of the model. In the first, the observer notes the actions of the model. Then, he finds that if he matches the behavior of the model, he is rewarded. For example, the child imitates words uttered by its parents because approval is provided on each occasion. Miller and Dollard have termed behavior of this kind as "matched-dependent" behavior. In the second form of imitation the observer attends to the outcomes of the model behavior rather than on the actions. He sees the model is rewarded or punished for emitting a particular type of response pattern. For instance a child learns, after accompanying his older brother to the store, that the*

brother receives candy in exchange for money. The observation of the brother being rewarded serves as the incentive the child needs to emulate like behavior on another occasion. (48, p.3)

The review studies on imitation using adult subjects indicate:

1. Both social and task reinforcement facilitate the elicitation of imitative behavior. There is some evidence, however, that a task reinforcer is the more effective of the two.
2. Social sanctions have a controlling effect upon the elicitation of imitative behavior.
3. Imitation tends to generalize the similar situations.
4. The more competent the model the more likely it is that imitative behavior will be elicited.
5. Prior failure experiences and low self-esteem tend to be associated with greater imitation rates. (48, p.17)

SEE: 12;13;25;46;48

V. CROSS CULTURAL INTERACTION TRAINING METHODS

Background reading about the host culture, lectures, discussion, manuals of do's and don'ts and other traditional methods of training for cross-cultural interpersonal skills have apparently been entirely inadequate. No researcher disparages these methods when nothing better is available; all would agree that many persons (notably business executives headed for foreign assignments) who receive no preparation of any kind for the interpersonal problems they will encounter in a strange land would benefit from these conventional training procedures. The research and development efforts in recent years, however, are based on the search for more powerful and intensive training experiences, whether they be intellectual or emotional grappling with the types of experiences typically encountered in the field.

The two main thrusts in research and program development, and they are not mutually exclusive, seem to be: (1) some form of simulation training based on real incidents and ranging from case method to immediate involvement of the trainee through programmed instruction or videotape self-confrontation; or (2) some form of experience-based human relations training. "Packaged" programs using integrated materials independent of an instructor are being developed since, whatever may be the ideal training, expense, large numbers to be trained and trainer shortages require some immediately available alternatives. Finally, interest in actual on-site training is increasing and this is perhaps simply an extension of simulation techniques to the whole training environment when this is feasible.

Simulation Based Methods

Many of the new programs for cross cultural interaction training and much of the experimental research involve simulation techniques in one form or another, often aided by such auxiliary devices as programmed instruction, film or videotape. These methods typically use the critical incidents reported from the field as content of the exercises and require the trainee to work through the communication problems by role-playing or programmed instruction. The exercise is immediately reviewed and the trainee may confront his own performance by watching a videotape, which graphically reveals his blunders. Such simulation is costly, requires careful planning, and skilled performances by the person playing the role of foreign counterpart in the interaction. However, the effectiveness of these methods has been clearly demonstrated in experimental situations and learning retention rates are high.

In case method and programmed instruction techniques (as e.g. in the "Culture Assimilator") carefully selected worded stories or incidents are presented to which the trainee reacts. His response is discussed, rewarded or corrected and he passes to the next episode. In self-confrontation, role playing episodes are acted out and monitored on video-tape or film for immediate replay to reveal subtle errors as well as gross mistakes. Carefully selected and trained actors in the counterpart role are required in addition to appropriate content in the role-playing. Such techniques build from basic knowledge of imitation, paralanguage, stimulated recall, immediate reward, involvement and other factors which lie behind the educational methods effective in similar training situations.

The experimental success of these methods may be less related to the particular techniques than to the care with which the content of the interaction has been contrived. Here much of the basic understanding of cultural patterns and assumptions of the American trainees is used to shake them into startled awareness of their most automatic reactions as personality or culture related. The "contrast American" as a theoretical construct is an example of the depth at which the training content has been thought through. In these role-playing exercises there is no effort actually to simulate behavior likely to be encountered in real foreign counterpart persons. Instead, the actor responds in a deliberately artificial manner which is the obverse or mirror image of typical middle class American behavior, in order to maximize and sharpen the trainee's perception of his own "self in culture".

> *Case method. While the case method has been used for years in training for law and medicine, the technique today is most closely associated with the Harvard Business School and other management training institutions that have followed Harvard's lead. The case typically consists of a problem situation consistently presented from the perspective of one of the individuals involved. The information may be considered to be all that is available, requiring a participant to infer other facts, or the information may be incomplete, requiring participant inquiries to gain additional relevant information. It may be long or short, a semi-technical problem focused on some management specialty or essentially a problem in the human aspects of management. The case is discussed in a group situation with the members making observations, raising questions, and offering solutions. Because the case is generally written so that members approach the problem from the perspective of a person in the case, the method may be viewed as a nonbehavioral or passive form of role-playing.* (13, p.24-25)

> *"Culture Assimilators". A more empirical approach to the problem of identifying critical cross-cultural differences was used in the construction of Culture Assimilators. The purpose of a Culture Assimilator is to train a person to interact effectively with persons from another culture. An assimilator which has been constructed so far is concerned with the American and the Middle Eastern cultures. It consists of a series of stories depicting interpersonal situations often encountered in cross cultural contexts. After each story, a list of alternative interpretations of the behavior described in the story is presented to the trainee, who is requested to choose the interpretation which seems most correct to him. If the interpretation is the "correct" one, the trainee is provided with some additional information and instructed to go on to the next story. If the chosen explanation is "wrong" the trainee is given some additional cues to help him understand the situation and he is instructed to read the story again and to choose another alternative. (12, p.5)*

> *The final mode developed eight types of Culture Assimilator episodes: Those in which the American and the host (a) agree about a value; and (b) disagree about a value; and those in which*

(c) the American feels positively about a value towards which the host feels negatively; and (d) the American feels negatively about a value towards which the host feels positively. Four additional types are obtained by substituting customs for values. The model proposes a quantitative statement of how many Culture Assimilator episodes of each type would provide the optimum training. Given that the American will interact in real life with the hosts in a corresponding set of eight kinds of interaction situations, and the frequency distribution of these interactions will depend on the nature of his assignment as well as the cultural similarities and differences between the American and the host, it is possible to derive the optimal training. (10, p.5-6)

Videotape self-confrontation. The implication of modeling techniques through videotape presentation for training becomes clear. A trainee, viewing a simulated interaction sequence between an American and a person of another culture, is able to study and scrutinize, from a relatively objective third-person viewpoint, the three components of the interaction described above. That is, he can view the cues given by the other culture individual, he can note the appropriate cue-response linkages, and observe the response of the American and the consequences of that response. Comparing an optimal or criterion performance with an ineffective performance can give the trainee a basis for evaluating his own behavior in similar circumstances. Finally, the subject, aided by supplementary instruction, can use film or videotape clips of a model interaction to see more clearly the differences in values, assumptions, and normative modes of behavior between the two cultures that underlie the cue-response system disparities. (48, p.25)

The technique involves another psychological principle useful in rapid learning -- the phenomenon of stimulated-recall. By replaying the behavioral situation on videotape, the trainee relives the whole scene and therefore can bring to mind what was going through his thoughts just at the moment of the critical behavior. Bloom and Siegel have used the technique of stimulated-recall with tape-recordings of college lectures in attempting to assess student attentiveness and teacher effectiveness. Both approaches, self-confrontation and stimulated-recall, depend critically upon the amount of time elapsed between the training session and the viewing of the film. Coaches notice this phenomenon with films of games or scrimmages. Dr. Gerhardt Nielsen of the Copenhagen Psychological Laboratory reports that the greater the elapsed time, the greater the detachment of the subject, thus, a loss in the value of confrontation. These effects are aggravated by the amount of time required for the developing and processing of film. Videotape has the singular advantage of immediate, full aural and video playback with no processing required. This permits complete utilization of the psychological impact of self-confrontation. (23, p.15)

The self-confrontation group displayed high retention throughout the time intervals studied. Following a 1-day interval, subjects actually performed slightly better than they had on the previous day's third trial. Effects of massed practice, rehearsal, or both are probably at play here. After 1 week, subjects retained over 93% of their terminal performance and at 2 weeks performed over 94% as well as their terminal axquisition level. Loss of skill throughout the entire retention period was not statisically significant. The practice group returned for retention testing after 1 week. This group performed only 85% as high as did the 1-week retention self-confrontation sub-group. This indicates that the enhanced training effect of self-confrontation over practice persists at least 1 week after termination of training. (5, p.27)

The experimental evidence related to self-confrontation as a training technique demonstrated that interaction skills in a cross-cultural setting are trainable. Results indicated that self-confrontation produces rapid acquisition of such skills and that they are retained at a high level for considerable periods of time. The procedure developed in these experiments for using self-confrontation as a training procedure is fairly simple. A subject is provided with background information relevant to his playing a role in a partial simulation of another culture. In this role-playing sequence the subject is to solve a problem in dealing with someone from the other culture. His behavior during the sequence is recorded on videotape and played back to the subject immediately following the end of the role-play. The subject's performance is verbally analyzed simultaneously with the playback. The subject is then returned to try the role-playing sequence again. Additional trials and confrontation periods are used when necessary. The rate of performance change throughout this procedure is high and positive. The retention of skills following acquisition does not fall below 93% of terminal acquisition performance over a 2-week interval (6, p.8)

The self-confrontation technique with film instead of videotape is a dramatically successful means of persuasion. The Denver Police Department uses the method in getting drunken-driving convictions: suspects photographed during their attempts to walk a chalkline blanch when they see the films later. Self-confrontation with films is also successful in the rapid acquisition of table manners; L.H. Ricker of the MacDonald Training Center used the method with retarded subjects. The technique has a long and successful history in the teaching of foreign languages. (23, p.15)

The "Contrast American". The heart of the approach to induce cultural self-awareness is found with the part of the person who participates as the American's counterpart in the role-playing. The auxiliary is obviously a foreigner who is identified as an official overseas. The American believes that his counterpart spontaneously assumes a role as he himself does. In fact, the counterpart auxiliary presents a contrived role to the American, a part called the "contrast American". He is a synthetic but plausible member of "contrast culture".

> "Contrast culture: and subsequently, "contrast Americans" were developed to confront the American role-player with a mirror image of himself. Contrast culture is, as far as it is plausible, the maximal contrast to American culture as described along the cognitive dimensions used to describe cultures. (39, p.5)

> Stewart proposes to facilitate effective cross-cultural interaction by increasing an American's understanding of the five components as they apply to his culture and training him to analyze another culture's components on the basis of introductory interaction with indigeneous persons. The indigeneous persons. The individual is then supposed to make a comparative analysis of the two sets of assumptions and values and act accordingly. To this end Stewart and others have devised what is termed the "Counter-American" technique wherein an American is confronted with a role-playing situation with a counterpart trained to behave in a fashion which violates most behavioral expectations of the American. The impression presented by current work on this technique is that an American after lengthy exposure to various role-playing problems does display some improved verbal ability in a generalized "other culture" environment. However, the generation of an operational training program using the Counter-American technique seems remote in view of the virtually undefinable training content and astonishingly high cost per student hour and the time required for preparation. (6, p.2)

> Though the concept of contrast-American culture is artificial, its simulation has to appear plausible. If the acting of the contrast-American is not convincing to the American role-player, the intent of the simulation is subverted, and neither the trainer nor the research objectives can be attained. The model is intended to be functional and it requires a convincing participation by the role-playing American. He must feel his part and he must be naturally impressed by the performance of the contrast-American if the simulation is to take, and become a functional simulacrum of cross-cultural communication. (42, p.298-9)

On-site training. As noted by trainees, additional gains from the Indian-Reservation experience were as follows;

1. It was a toughening-up experience for rigorous outdoor living.
2. It gave trainees a chance to get to know each other in small groups and under working conditions roughly comparable to those that would be faced overseas.
3. The minimal amount of structure in this part of the program threw trainees back upon their own resources. Some trainees found themselves capable of assuming considerable individual responsibilty, and all trainees were permitted to make mistakes and to learn or not to learn from them. Character problems emerged with respect to a few trainees whose immaturity was not apparent within the ensuing classroom-dominated program.

4. It gave trainees an opportunity to size up a strange community (i.e., to learn to spot leaders, to identify faction, to cope with divisions) and to find their own place in it.
5. Getting acquainted with a new culture gave trainees a vantage point for viewing their own culture, and permitted them to gain a perspective in terms of which to reassess the functioning of the Peace Corps and their own roles in it. (21, p.11)

SEE: 4;5;7;10;12;21;22;23;29;30;36;40;41;42;48

Experience-Based Human Relations Training

Several programs report attempts to capitalize on long experience and experimentation with human relations training using T-groups and related techniques. The assumption of these programs is that the trainee learns best how to perceive his own feelings, emotions, and unconscious responses, as well as those of other persons, through a training program in which trainees scrutinize these feelings and reponses as they arise from actual unstructured personal interaction situations. Though no objective evaluations of such programs are found in this literature, they rest on a large body of experimental work, the principles of which are adapted to the new purpose of cross cultural training. The chief problems appear to be the initial troubled reaction of many trainees and the scarcity of trainers skilled in and committed to this type of training.

Trainers who work in this tradition are typically concerned with the process by which the trainee learns to cope with the ambiguous stimuli he perceives, often in distorted fashion, in uncertain situations of face-to-face human encounter. To maintain himself effectively in such situations, the trainee must perforce learn how his own "self" filters awareness and bends his action. From frustrating encounters with conflicting patterns of personality or cultural constriction, he may learn to move forward, without dismay, to modify or reconstruct the human relations on which collaboration and mutual action may proceed. Thus, the trainee may react to value differences and other feeling conflicts as information related to problem solving in the inter-cultural situation rather than as emotional cues for fight, flight or collapse onto external authority.

Experienced-based training. The second approach, which is not nearly so widespread, will be called here role-centered training. Its purpose is to prepare the volunteer not just to do a job but to live a life, to undertake a kind of total role as a change agent, whatever his technical speciality, his prior professional or technical training. It is a program in which the technical skill, if any, is perceived as a kind of peg to hang a way of life on. The process of the training program is considered to be as important as subject matter. It is likely to be what the training technicians call an "experience-based" program, less structured, conducted in freedom, with the essential order resting not on the exercise of adult authority but on an assumption of responsibility by the trainees for parts of their own training and development. (25, p.34)

Education for cross-cultural applications should train the individual in a system of learning operations that is independent of settings, persons, and other information sources not found in the overseas environment. If the trainee can be educated to be an effective and independent learner, he need not be filled with all the information he can contain before going into his new job. He will have the capacity to generate his own learning as needed. Indeed, he will have to generate his own learning in any case, whether he is trained to do this or not, for the simple reason that no training agency can train for every exotic contingency, for every aspect of life and work in another culture. (24, p.439)

Design principles for cross-cultural training differ from those of the university classroom. The purposes of the former are to: (1) develop in the student more independence of external sources of decision, information, problem definition, and motivation; (2) develop in the student the "emotional muscle" he needs to deal constructively with the strong feelings which are created by conflict and confrontation of values and attitudes; (3) enable him to make choices and commitments to action in situations of stress and uncertainty; and (4) encourage him to use his own and others' feelings, attitudes, and values as information in defining and solving human problems. (24, p.442)

The term "project' is used here to describe an activity requiring a learner to -

1. *Obtain information from the social environment (communication);*
2. *Formulate and test hypotheses about forces and processes present in the environment (diagnosis);*
3. *Select and describe some part of the situation which is to be changed or altered (problem definition);*
4. *Plan action to solve the problem (commitment, risk taking);*
5. *Carry out the action, enlisting the help and cooperation of others (influencing and organizing);*
6. *Verbalize attitudes, perceptions, and tentative learnings from the experience (cognition and generalization).*

Projects should be the heart of an experience-based training program. (24, p.454)

> *T-groups*. *The T-group (training group) is an initially unstructured group of perhaps a dozen participants who meet without a pre-established agenda, rules of procedure, or division of labor. A trainer functions as a resource person to help the group members analyze and understand their own and each other's behavior, rather than in the traditional role of instructor or discussion leader.*
>
> *Human relations training overseas work can probably be enriched by incorporating foreign nationals into the training groups. T-groups of mixed nationalities, for example, may represent a microcosm of a cross-cultural encounter that can provide an in-depth cultural learning experience for the particpants. Under skillful guidance, such a strategy may integrate the substantive content of cultural learning with the situational requirements for behavioral change. In addition, exposure to an unstructured training milieu may "immunize" the trainee against adverse reactions to the very real ambiguities of actual overseas situations.* (13, p.VI)
>
> *Because of the ambiguity and lack of stucture of the T-group, and the attending opportunity for personal, social or cultural confrontations, some trainees will have a stormy reaction in the T-group, especially in its early stages. Such discomfort, if not extreme, is actually a constructive factor, indicating that, for that individual, the training is personally involving or "taking effect". Conversely, ineffective training programs are often well-liked by trainees because of their soporific and entertaining qualities.* (13, p.29)
>
> SEE: 3;13;15;24;25;31;32

Integrated Package Programs

In response to the exceedingly high costs of all cross cultural interaction training techniques, some programs have been developed which integrate audio-visual and other training materials in a standard package, which may be used by relatively untrained instructors.

> *Training centers around a set of self-contained, multi-media Planned Aids for Cross-cultural Knowledge, Action and Growth in Effectiveness (PACKAGE). The self-contained PACKAGE concept is important for two reasons. First, few people are academically trained to teach necessary cross-cultural interaction skills and attitudes. Second, the amount of area-specific information required to train personnel for all possible assignments is overwhelming. The advantage of a completely self-contained PACKAGE is evident. An instructor acting as leader can open the PACKAGE and train his students by following the directions and using*

the materials provided. He need neither concern himself with selection and preparation of subject content nor with the design and production of training aids. His full effort can be given to guiding students through the materials provided. (18, p.3)

SEE: 11;18

VI BIBLIOGRAPHY

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(4) recommendations for further research, projects, and changes in the preparation of RPCVs for staff training roles involving discussion facilitation, and (5) broad conclusions. The Speech Communication Center staff judged the seminars successful. Project staff members are listed. Appendixes include questionnaire forms and tests used to evaluate the project, syllabuses, a list of unit library reading materials and handouts, selected cases written by the RPCVs at the training site, selected cases discussed, unstructured participant evaluations of the project, and tables showing results of statistical analysis of evaluation data. (rt) EDRS order number:ED 017 852, Price MF-$0.50, HC-$4.08.

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ABSTRACT: An experiment tested the relative effectiveness of two techniques for training United States Air Force military advisors in cross cultural communication skills. Retention of skills over time and effects of attitude on learning were also studied. Subjects played the role of an Air Force Captain interacting with a foreign counterpart, played by a confederate of the experimenters. Subjects were to perform 57 distinct behaviors appropriate to the situation. Each had received a positive, negative, or neutral impression of the counterpart's fictitious culture. The 66 male subjects were divided into two groups and taught the desired behaviors either by extensive reading of training manuals followed by three role-playing sessions or by less reading but with self-confrontation by a videotape replay between successive role-play trials. Subjects performed the same role again either one day, one week, or two weeks following initial training. Self-confrontation proved superior to reading in training the desired behaviors. Subjects with positive attitudes toward the culture learned fastest.

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ABSTRACT: A comparative analysis was made of several approaches to training for cross-cultural interaction by U.S. military personnel. Two major opposing scientific conceptualizations of training for culture-contact are discussed. Training objectives are presented with consideration of self-confrontation as a training technique. Self-confrontation through videotape and analysis of role-playing has been shown experimentally to train for interaction skills in a cross-cultural setting and to result in retention of these skills for considerable periods of time (ja) AC 000 641.

7. Eachus, Herbert T. SYMPOSIUM ON CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING, PRACTICE AND FEEDBACK VARIABLES IN THE TRAINING OF CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTION SKILLS. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American Psychological Association (74th, New York City, Sept.1966 Aerospace Medical Research Lab., Wright-Patterson AFB, Ohio. Sept.5, 1966. 18 pages.

ABSTRACT: An experiment was conducted by the Air Force Mobile Training Team to assess the relative effectiveness of two techniques for training military advisors in effective interpersonal relations with those foreign nationals with whom they deal. Retention of skills over time and effects of attitudes on learning were also studied. A role playing technique was used for training. One group was trained by extensive reading of training manuals followed by three role-playing sessions. Another group was trained by less reading but with self-confrontation via videotape feedback during the intertrial periods. Trainees were instilled with either positive, neutral, or negative attitudes toward the foreign culture. The results of training were tested by performances after one day, one week, or two weeks following initial training. Self-confrontation proved superior to manual reading in training desired behaviors. Subjects with positive attitudes learned at the highest rate. Retention of skills learned through self-confrontation was high. A discussion of planned future research on cross-cultural training techniques and programs was included. (rt) AC 001 469.

8. Education and World Affairs THE UNIVERSITY LOOKS ABROAD, APPROACHES TO WORLD AFFAIRS AT SIX AMERICAN UNIVERSITIES. New York 1965. 300 pages.

ABSTRACT: Education and World Affairs, a private nonprofit educational organization devoted to the review, analysis, and assessment of the directions univeristies are moving in world affairs programs, has reviewed the involvement in world affairs of six American universities--Stanford, Michigan State, Tulane, Wisconsin, Cornell, and Indiana. Included in each review are the history of the university, its international programs and foreign students, area studies, research and technical assistance programs abroad, on campus programs linked to foreign affairs, library resources, and course offerings including those in foreign languages. In the final chapter, issues and problems brought about by post-war changes in the international responsibilities of universities (such as leadership, feedback, internationalizing the curriculum, foreign students, overseas contract operations, and institutional collaboration) are discussed. The document includes a selected bibliography. This document is available from Walker and Co., New York. (aj) AC 002 151.

9. Elliott, William Y. EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN THE DEVELOPING COUNTIES, THE ROLE OF U.S. FOREIGN AID. Appendixes. 1966. 416 pages.

ABSTRACT: In this collection of studies of foreign aid as an instrument of United States foreign policy, the underlying problems of training and educational assistance to developing nations are discussed, together with useful forms of participation by the Federal government, American and foreign universities, foundations and private enterprise, and national military establishments. Existing approaches to foreign aid are examined, and specific suggestions for policies and programs in international education are offered. (Efforts in adult education, for example should concentrate on imparting a sense of the possibilities inherent in educational and economic development, building literacy and vocational skills, and promoting community development.) The principal theme is that economic development, stability, and true independence in the developing nations depend on rapid advances in recruiting and training indigenous leaders in politics, administration, education, and technology. (Also included are appendixes, a discussion of Peace Corps activities and training objectives, and accounts of supervisory and industrial training in Venezuela and in India, teacher training in Nigeria, university assistance in Brazil and Pakistan, and military sponsored national development.) (Available for $7.50 from Frederick A. Praeger, Inc., 111 Fourth Ave., New York, N.Y. 10003) (ly) AC 000 663.

10. Fiedler, Fred E. and Triandis, Harry C, COMMUNICATION, COOPERATION, AND NEGOTIATION IN CULTURALLY HETEROGENEOUS GROUPS. Quarterly report. Illinois University Urbana Group Effectiveness Research Lab. Jan. 1968. 19 pages.

ABSTRACT: Studies concern the development of basic data on semantic features and culturally significant behavior, the dynamics of interactions in negotiation and bargaining, the effect of task structure on group climate and group interaction and relevant methodological issues. The two major studies which are currently in progress concern a comparison of training by means of Culture Assimilators and essays, as well as a concurrent comparison of training materials developed by means of the methods which have been developed by Triandis and by Osgood. The second major study involved the development of an Iran Culture Assimilator and a field experiment to evaluate its effect on interactions of Americans and Iranians in cooperative and negotiation tasks. CFSTI order number AD 664 681. Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

11. Fiedler, Fred E. THE EFFECT OF CULTURE TRAINING ON LEADERSHIP ORGANIZATIONAL PERFORMANCE AND ADJUSTMENT. Illinois University Urbana Department of Psychology. 1968. 13 pages.

ABSTRACT: Training and preparation are required in order to work successfully in another culture. A number of such training programs have been developed for this purpose. Some of them, like Foreign Service or Peace Corps training, require several months; others such as those in some business organizations, involve orientation courses of several weeks. There is, however, a need for the type of orientation which can be compressed into the space of a few hours. The need for such a program is particularly acute for the officer who suddenly finds himself en route to a foreign assignment, or for the government official or business executive who simply cannot spare the weeks or months to prepare himself for each and every culture within which he must perform effectively. An attempt was made to develop a culture training program which would provide the individual some familiarity with the host culture within the space of hours--if necessary on the place to his destination. (Author) CFSTI order number AD 670 754. Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

12. Foa, Uriel G. and Chemers, Martin M. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF ROLE BEHAVIOR DIFFERENTIATION FOR CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTION TRAINING. Illinois University, Urbana. Dept. of Psychology. U.S Office of the Surgeon General, Washington. March 1966. 27 pages Illus.

ABSTRACT: A cross-cultural difference important to the working of a culturally heterogeneous group is that of role differentiation. One hypothesis is that traditional cultures stress differentiation of roles in the same system (such as the family system), while modern cultures stress differentiation of comparable roles of different systems (such as father-son role in the family system and employer-employee in the work system). This hypothesis was tested by the use of a training program composed of 55 cross-cultural interpersonal problem episodes to be interpreted, for causes of conflict, by the trainee. The results support the hypothesis and show the importance of role differentiation in cross-cultural training. Proposals are made for systematizing the training program. (ja) AC 000 642.

13. Foster, Robert J. and Danielian, Jack AN ANALYSIS OF HUMAN RELATIONS TRAINING AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR OVERSEAS PERFORMANCE. George Washington University, Washington. HumRRO. U.S. Dept. of the Army. Office, Chief of Research and Development. August 1966. 38 Pages. Illus. fs. Bibliography pp. 33-36.

ABSTRACT: Evidence indicates that the nature of overseas work requires an increased emphasis on the people-related functions of job performance, the importance of which is further accentuated by the contrast between American and non-American values, assumptions, and perceptions, upon which effective communications and interpersonal behavior depend. Existing knowledge and experience in human relations training are reviewed to determine relevance to preparing personnel for the cross-cultural aspects of overseas assignments. T-group training techniques, role playing, and case study are examined. Each is treated with respect to (1) a general description, (2) evidence as to its effectiveness, (3) its applications in area training, and (4) possible modifications for use in training people for overseas work. Document includes 64 references. (ly) AC 000 126.

14. Foster, Robert J. and O'Nan, David T. SOME RESOURCES FOR AREA TRAINING. George Washington University, Washington, D.C. HumRRO. Sept. 1967.

ABSTRACT: This report lists resources that may be useful to individuals responsible for area training programs, especially if the trainees are being sent to developing nations. Part I gives descriptions, source data, and evaluative information about films likely to be of more than average value in area training. It also contains items concerned with technical assistance, development, social change, and cross cultural communication. Part II lists some novels that capture the attitudes, feelings and aspirations of other cultures. The first two parts are classified primarily by cultural-geographic areas and by country. They include--Africa, Middle East, Asia, Latin America, Pacific Islands, and West Indies. Part III is an annotated list of readings which describe and analyze American values in ways that may enable the reader to become more sensitive to the values and assumptions which determine his behavior. Part IV describes several organizations and publications, other than novels or movies, which provide information about sources of area training materials. CFSTI order number 660 057, MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

15. Frandsen, Kenneth D. and Dance, Frank E. PEACE CORPS DISCUSSION LEADERS' TRAINING UNIT, TRAINING EVALUATION STUDY. Part I. Wisconsin University, Milwaukee, Speech Communication Center. Peace Corps, Washington, D.C. September 1965. 85 pages.

ABSTRACT: This is part one of a report on discussion leadership training conducted by the Speech Communication Center of the University of Wisconsin (Milwaukee), during June 1965 to equip returned Peace Corps volunteers to serve as facilitators of Peace Corps trainee small group discussions. The goals of small group discussion are to integrate theory and behavior, to develop personal flexibility and openness in trainees, and to increase the trainees' tolerance for frustration. Scores, ratings, and written and oral comments were used to assess the effects of the course on the role perception of the participants , amounts and kinds of knowledge gained in small group discussion behavior and leadership, and participant satisfaction with the training unit. The program was generally well received by the participants, and met staff expectations on all dimensions. It was recommended that several participants be chosen at random to make an additional evaluation of the program and that, if the initial success of the training unit should be confirmed, such training should be offered on a systematic basis. (The document includes the syllabus, case studies, tests and questionnaires, and comments.) (ly) EDRS order number: ED 017 842, Price MF-$0.50, HC-$3.48

16. George Washington University BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PUBLICATIONS, HUMAN RESOURCES RESEARCH OFFICE, AS OF 30 JUNE 1966(AND) INTERIM BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PUBLICATIONS, 1 JULY TO 31 DECEMBER 1966. Washington, D.C. HumRRO. Dept. of the Army, Washington, D.C. Chief of Research and Development. March 1967. 254 pages.

ABSTRACT: The Human Resources Research Office (HumRRO) bibliography proper, covering publications up to 30 June 1966, has three main sections-a separate listing of Fiscal Year 1966 publications arranged chronologically under code name or research area, or in a general section (titles grouped by HumRRO, professional, or military origin) a cumulation of all HumRRO publications including current research, and a listing of such research by-products as specific training programs, technical manuals, and training items for new equipment. These are briefly described under research code names or general categories, with citation of publications to which they are related. Also in this document are author and keyword-in-context (KWIC) indexes, appendixes, and the interim bibliography, which includes Defence Documentation Center (AD) numbers wherever applicable. (ly). AC 001 413.

17. George Washington University INTERIM BIBLIOGRAPHY OF PUBLICATIONS 1 JULY TO 31 DECEMBER 1967. Feb. 1968. 15 pages.

ABSTRACT: The bibliography provides information about publications of the human Resources Research Office from 1 July to 31 December 1967. It is supplemental to the cumulative listing, and entries will be integrated with the annual cumulative listing as of 30 June 1968. The entries are listed chronologically under the Work Units, Basic Research Studies, Exploratory Studies, and Technical Advisory Service to which they relate. Items not related to any specific research effort are listed chronologically in the general section (Author) CFSTI order number AD 667 823 Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

18. Grace, Gloria L. and Hofland, N.A. MULTIMEDIA TRAINING FOR CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTION. Systems Development Corporation, Santa Monica, California April 1967. 21 pages.

ABSTRACT: In addition to technical knowledge, cross-cultural interaction skills are required by Americans for successful overseas missions. Since cross-cultural experience is not readily available in the United States, a practical training program is required to develop necessary skills and attitudes. Training material packages, notably the self-contained PACKAGE (Planned Aids for Cross-Cultural Knowledge, Action, and Growth in Effectiveness), have been developed by the Systems Development Corporation. Typical elements are--leader's manual, interaction maps (student planning guides), picture cards, film strips, audio tapes, video tapes, radio programs, motion pictures, synthetic situation settings, question and answer discussion aids, and worksheets for independent study. Content units consist of general principles, American foreign and domestic policy, area study, and language study. An instructor acting as a leader can train his students by following the directions and using the materials provided. His full effort can be given to guiding the student. CFSTI order number AD 651 574, Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

19. Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, Inc. PSYCHIATRY AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS, REPORTS AND SYMPOSIA OF THE GROUP FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF PSYCHIATRY. New York. 1966. 477 pages.

ABSTRACT: The reports and symposia comprising this volume concern the application of psychiatric principles to broad social problems and issues--racial segregation and desegregation, international and cross cultural relations, psychological attitudes and adaptation in new situations (specifically, overseas employment), methods, techniques, and uses of forceful indoctrination, the psychological and medical aspects of the use of atomic energy, and the prevention of nuclear war. Also included are bibliographies, a statement of purpose, and lists of members and committees of the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry. This document is available from Aldine Publishing Company, Chicago. (ly) AC 001 759.

20. Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, Inc. WORKING ABROAD, A DISCUSSION OF PSYCHOLOGICAL ATTITUDES AND ADAPTATION IN NEW SITUATIONS. 1966. 43 pages.

ABSTRACT: This report, part of a larger work compiled by the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, investigates the special psychological problems of persons working overseas and discusses recommendations on how to meet these problems. Motives and expectations, environmental changes and "culture shock," the role of the family, varying patterns of service (notably the United States Foreign Service, technical assistance, voluntary agencies, and business), and individual personality are seen as crucial to satisfaction or stress overseas. (Excerpts from letters by a technical consultant illustrate factors in successful adaptation.) A great need is indicated for improved personnel selection procedures, through orientation and specific area training before departure, and adequate preventative and remedial mental health measures and services overseas. A unified Foreign Service center for training, consultation, and research is also called for. The document includes 25 references and statistical data on American overseas personnel. This document is Chapter 5 of PSYCHIATRY AND PUBLIC AFFAIRS, by the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, Inc. It is available from the Aldine Publishing Company, 320 West Adams Street, Chicago, Illinois 60606. (ly) AC 001 760.

21. Haigh, Gerard. FIELD TRAINING IN HUMAN RELATIONS FOR THE PEACE CORPS. Psychological Service Associates, Los Angeles, California. 1966. 11 pages.

ABSTRACT: Field training conducted in 1962 by Arizona State University for 53 potential Peace Corps volunteers was designed to increase human relations skills, i.e., awareness of the impact of their feelings and motives on interpersonal relationships, and awareness of their own ways, and of alternative methods, of handling interpersonal conflict. In addition to undergoing the usual Peace Corps training, the trainees lived and worked with Pimas, Maricopas, and Navajos and participated in small group discussions and role playing related to their day to day experiences. Almost all (95 percent) of the trainees evaluated the program favorably in terms of gains in understanding of, and empathy with, the host population, and awareness of how their own motives, feelings, and cultural values contribute to conflict. Reports from overseas a year later underscored the effectiveness of this phase of training. Document includes 3 references. This article appeared in The Journal of Social Psychology, 68/3-13, 1966. (ly) AC 000 662.

22. Haines, Donald B. and Eachus, Herbert T. A PRELIMINARY STUDY OF ACQUIRING CROSS-CULTURAL INTERACTION SKILLS THROUGH SELF-CONFRONTATION. Final Report July 1964-August 1964. Aerospace Medical Research Labs., Wright-Patterson AFB (Ohio). Sept. 1965. 41 pages.

ABSTRACT: An experiment carried out to assess the relative effectiveness of two methods of training United States Air Force military advisors in cross-cultural skills required subjects to play the role of an American Air Force Captain who had to interact, in specified ways, with a foreign counterpart played by an actor. A list of 34 behaviors appropriate to the situation and fictitious culture were provided, including actions and gesturesboth similar to those in our own society and considerably different. Twenty-three male subjects were divided into control and experimental groups and taught the desired behaviors by two methods--(1) verbal coaching after a role-playing session and (2) self-confrontation by a videotape replay after a role-playing session. Considerable improvement resulted from these methods. The experiment confirmed the effectiveness of self-confrontation as a training technique for the rapid acquisition of complex and subtle skills of interaction, an area of difficulty encountered by Air Force advisors on counterinsurgency training missions. Suggestions for further research on self-confrontation as a training technique are made. CFSTI order number AD 624 120. Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

23. Haines, Donald B. TRAINING FOR CULTURE-CONTACT AND INTERACTION SKILLS. Aerospace Medical Research Labs., Wright-Patterson AFB (Ohio). December 1964. 26 pages.

ABSTRACT: Many United States Air Force training missions abroad are short and depend upon close, intensive interaction between the American advisor and his counterpart, making it necessary for the American to establish rapport quickly and to communicate efficiently. It has been assumed that an American skilled in his job and in the language of the host country could, with correct motivation, successfully carry out his mission. Such is not the case. Skill is also required in the other person's customs, habits, taboos, mannerisms, and gestures, which have traditionally been taught by briefings or lectures. This report outlines a procedure for collecting in the field those cross-cultural behaviors most critical for the success of the advisory mission and describes a means of categorizing these behaviors for incorporation into a training program. Those behaviors requiring passive knowledge may easily be taught by traditional lectures and handbooks. Others may be taught by programed materials, while some require more elaborate teaching methods. A method for teaching interaction skills using a videao tape recorder is presented. Subjects placed in simulated advisor-advisee roles learn critical skills through self-confrontation with video-aural playback of their behavior. (aj) CFSTI AD 611 022 Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

24. Harrison, Roger and Hopkins, Richard L. THE DESIGN OF CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING, AN ALTERNATIVE TO THE UNIVERSITY MODEL. December 1967. 30 pages.

ABSTRACT: Returned Peace Corps Volunteers note that their training experiences, however interesting or well presented, did not prepare them for the total life they had to lead overseas. This paper examines this discontent by dissecting the relationships between the ends and means of training for cross-cultural performance. The analysis leads to the conclusion that the traditional methods of higher education are not well suited to training for application in any situation requiring the ability to adapt to or to act in unfamiliar and ambiguous social situations (such as community development or community action work, especially when such work is with the disadvantaged, or in institutional subcultures that differ basically from the "outside world.") Further objectives of this paper are to present a conception of some learning processes that can lead to the ability to cope with ambiguity and to take action under stress, to present some design principles for such training, and to specify the kinds of skills and competence needed to design and operate effective cross-cultural training programs. A Peace Corps training program in which some of these design principles were tested is described. (This article appeared in THE JOURNAL OF APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCE, Volume 3, Number 4, Oct/Nov/Dec, 1967, pages 431-460) (aj) AC 002 075.

25. Harrison, Roger and Hopkins, Richard L. THE DESIGN OF CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING, WITH EXAMPLES FROM THE PEACE CORPS. NEA, Washington. National Training Laboratories. 1966. 60 pages.

ABSTRACT: Three articles on the design of cross-cultural training with the examples from the Peace Corps. Harrison points out the inapplicability of the current training for overseas service dissenting the relationship between its end and means. He argues that the methods of higher education are not applicable to the situation which requires the ability to adapt to unfamiliar and ambiguous social situations. Training designs only for understanding are not enough. They must require the person to experience emotional impact of phenomena with which he is dealing and to translate ideas and values into direct action, with risks. Hopkins states that the trainee has not really been trained for the life in the Peace Corps and then suggests that it is necessary to work toward the creation of an environment which will reward creativity. In his second paper, Hopkins describes a successful training program at Camp Crozier, in which the efforts of the teachers were directed toward activating a will to learn in the trainees and toward creating an environment to sustain spontaneous learning. (sm) EDRS order number ED 011 103, Price MF-$0.50, HC-$2.40.

26. Hitchin, David E. INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS EDUCATION, THE EXECUTIVE'S VIEWPOINT, A REPORT ON A SURVEY OF NEEDS. February 1968. 7 pages.

ABSTRACT: International business organizations and intercollegiate conferences have provided most information regarding goals and objectives of international business education. Twenty-five top executives of such international corporations as Union Carbide, Merck, and IBM, were interviewed to help plan the International Business Program at University of Kansas. Suggestions are given for three job assignments-- (1)InternationalSpecialists-professionals who perform their functions during the start-up stages of a foreign enterprise, (2) The Key Administrator Abroad who implements home policy and procedures through negotiation with the local government, union, and business representatives, and (3) The Chief International Executive who is responsible for planning, coordinating and controlling activities of each foreign affiliate and integrating these with domestic enterprise. The most important university programs and activities identified were those that developed an awareness of culturally bound attitudes--such as study and travel abroad, comparative courses in economics, science, and law, and sensitivity training in groups which include foreign students.

This article appeared in TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT JOURNAL, Volume 22, Number 2, February, 1968. (pt) AC 002 132.

27. Hoehn, Arthur J. THE DESIGN OF CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING FOR MILITARY ADVISOR. (HumRRO Professional Papers). George Washington University, Washington. HumRRO. 1966. 9 Pages.

ABSTRACT: Factors which make the foreign advisor's assignment quite different from typical military assignments include the unusual physical and cultural setting, the unfamiliar functions to be performed, and the complex intercultural, international, interorganizational, and interpersonal aspects of the job. Adequate preparation requires high-order knowledge and skills which can be developed only by adoption of new perspectives for area training. These new perspectives relate not only to objectives and content but also to the overall plan for programing area training into the larger pattern of education and training spanning the military officer's career. (aj). AC 001 175.

28. Hoehn, Arthur J. THE NEED FOR INNOVATIVE APPROACHES FOR TRAINING IN INTER-CULTURAL INTERACTION. George Washington University, Alexandria, Va. Human Resources Research Office. March 1966. 13 pages.

ABSTRACTS: There is growing acceptance of the view that personnel being assigned overseas require some special preparation for the inter-cultural aspects of such assignments. At present such training generally takes the form of short pre-departure orientation programs designed to provide a fund of relevant information. This paper points to the limitations of such an approach, suggests some of the alternative objectives of inter-cultural training, describes some current efforts toward new techniques, and points to the need for empirical assessment of the training value of the new approaches and techniques. (Author). CFSTI Order number: AD 667 821, Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

29. King, Philip H. A SUMMARY OF RESEARCH IN TRAINING FOR ADVISORY ROLES IN OTHER CULTURES BY THE BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES LABORATORY. Final Report 1963-1966. Aerospace Medical Research Labs., Wright-Patterson AFB (Ohio) September 1966. 10 pages.

ABSTRACT: Due to the need for improved interpersonal relations between United States Air Force technical advisors overseas and the indigenous persons with whom they work, a research program has been established to improve methods for training cross-cultural communicative skills. This research is divided into four parts--(1) identification in the field of critical incidents and analysis of interactions between Americans and native persons, (2) development, testing, and evaluation of means of collecting information on other cultures, and (3) development in the laboratory of new training programs, using Air Force personnel in actual operational contexts. This study compared two training methods for teaching cross-cultural interaction skills. Subjects trained under self-confrontation (viewing videotape recordings of their performances in role-play situations) learned faster and attained a higher terminal level of performance than subjects who received a standard training manual to read. Subjects with positive attitudes toward the foreign culture learned faster than subjects with neutral or negative attitudes. Retention of skills learned through self-confrontation was high over a two week interval. A discussion of future research employing videotape and the self-confrontation phenomenon is given. CFSTI order number: AD 648 517. Price MF$0.65, HC-$3.00.

30. Melching, William H. and Nelson, Frank B. THE INFLUENCE OF PRACTICE FRAMES AND VERBAL ABILITY ON PROGRAMED INSTRUCTION PERFORMANCE. George Washington University, Washington, HumRRO. U.S. Dept. of the Army, Washington. January 1966. 24 pages illustration.

ABSTRACT: A program in counterinsurgency was analyzed into teaching and practice frames and 2 program versions prepared, 1 containing both teaching and practice frames, and 1 contain-only teaching frames. These were administered to 32 enlisted men representing 2 levels of verbal ability. On completing the program, each subject was administered 3 types of achievement test. Learning time and number or errors were obtained. The presence of practice frames was found to be influential only on a written recall type of test, where they enabled subjects to proceed through the program at a faster rate per frame, make fewer program errors, and score higher. Practice frames increased the total program learning time. Verbal ability was found to have a significant effect on performance on each type of achievement test and on both measures of performance. (ja) AC 000 540.

31. Mill, Cyril R. and Clee, Jan E. ASSESSMENT OF INTERCULTURAL EXPERIENCE OF ASIAN VISITORS TO THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, Alexandria, Va., May 10-13, 1966. (NTL. Applications of human relations laboratory training,4). National Education Association. National Training Laboratories United States. State Dept. Bureau of Cultural Affairs, sponsor. June 1966. 23 pages.

ABSTRACT: The Bureau of Cultural Affairs of the State Department has been obtaining an evaluation of the experience of foreign visitors to this country through personal interviews, questionnaires, and group interviews. This project experimented with the laboratory method in the belief that information of great richness could be retrieved. The participants were nine English-speaking Asians, officials in colleges in India and Nepal. The design of the 3-day residential program included an evening of handling anxieties, a day of T group experience, a review of the taped record of this experience, and a brainstorming session where elements of their visit were itemized and categorized. These comments were then taped. Categories included--preparation for the seminar, selection of participants, travel arrangements, academic program, visits to schools, colleges, homes, and so forth. The group discussed items which probably would not have been forthcoming through other evaluation techniques. The openness and richness of comments speak well for using laboratory training as a means of retrieving this kind of information. (eb) EDRS order number: ED 012 404, Price MF-$0.25, HC-$0.92.

32. Mial, H. Curtis, LEADERSHIP TRAINING PROGRAM FOR SELECTED AFRICAN HEALTH SPECIALISTS, Washington, D.C. Sept. 12-24, 1965. (NTL Applications of human relations laboratory training, 3). National Education Association. National Training Laboratories. May 1966. 22 pages.

ABSTRACT: The Agency for International Development has been training African health specialists in the United States but leadership training has been given little attention. Such training should help him overcome differences between modern technology and traditional customs, define organizational role, resolve status differences, and get cooperative effort from organization members. A ten-day residential program was set up at the University of Maryland for 16 health specialists from Ethiopia, Sudan, Liberia, Sierra Leone, and the Congo. This preliminary report focuses on staff and participant evaluation of the program. Outcomes of the training were examined through participants' evaluation of the administration of the program (such as selection of participants, orientation, timing, and laboratory design), through problem analysis material (T group problems and back-home problems) from a group studying force field analysis, the four training staff members' subjective opinions on the changes taking place in the T groups, and a one-day recorded staff evaluation session. It is recommended that follow-up and support of participants be included after laboratory training. Further evaluation will result from data obtained after participants have been at home for some months. (eb). EDRS order number: ED 012 403, Price MF$0.25, HC-$ 0.88.

33. Niehoff, Arthur H. and Anderson, J. Charnel. A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF CORSS-CULTURAL CHANGE PROJECTS (Research memorandum). George Washington University, Washington. HumRRO. Task CIVIC. U.S. Dept. of the Army, Washington. October 1964. 32 pages.

ABSTRACT: Prepared as a guide to the literature for technical change agents, and useful also for social science students interested in directed cultural change, this is a selected list of materials available up to May, 1964 in libraries in the Washington area. Selections were made on basis of adequacy for analytic purposes, principally to determine factors responsible for acceptance or rejection of new ideas and techniques. (eb) AC 000 291.

34. Pagano, Jules. EDUCATION IN THE PEACE CORPS, EVOLVING CONCEPTS OF VOLUNTEER TRAINING (CSLEA. Notes and essays on education for adults, 48). Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, Brookline, Mass. 1965. 64 pages.

ABSTRACT: The fundamental principle of Peace corps Volunteer training--total cultural immersion--is achieved through direct teaching and field experience. Trainees learn language (through intensive audiolingual methods, bringing language learning into every aspect of life at the training site), customs (through role playing and cross cultural studies), and attitudes (through discussion with staff who have lived in the country to be served). Returning volunteers, after being trained as discussion leaders, have become outstanding teachers in the training programs, stressing the need for social research for effective community development. In-house training,in which training is entirely run by the Peace Corps, has been tried as an alternative to university-sponsored training, and advanced training for college juniors has begun. Peace Corps training methods have implications for training workers with adults from foreign cultures(especially teaching English as a foreign language), and from disadvantaged groups, and have proved that young people can become successful teachers of adults. (Document includes a role playing exercise, a case study for Latin America, a proposal for a school to develop personnel for international service, and notes.) This document is also available, for $1.50 from the Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, 138 Mountfort St., Brookline, Mass. 02146 (aj) EDRS order number: ED 015 433, Price MF$0.50, HC-$2.56.

35. Peace Corps, PEACE CORPS, CONGRESSIONAL PRESENTATION, FISCAL YEAR 1967. Washington, D.C. May 1966. 133 pages.

ABSTRACT: This report to Congress discusses the history, financial policy, volunteer programs, and rationale of the Peace Corps, with emphasis on plans to improve training and expand its program. Peace Corps teaching, community development, agricultural development, and health education in various developing countries are reviewed and evaluated. A proposal (including budget, recruitment and personnel policy, and training curriculum is set forth for a partnership exchange, and an Exchange Peace Corps, in which foreign volunteers would contribute to the social and educational development of host communities by teaching native languages and cultures and assisting VISTA volunteers. The 1965 and 1966 Peace Corps budgets, and proposed 1967 budget of $112,150,000 for basic Peace Corps work (Title I) and for the proposed exchange and volunteer programs (Titles II and III) include volunteer and project costs (pretraining, training, overseas costs, allowances, research) and administrative expenses (personnel, maintainance, supplies, and equipment, testing travel and transportation, etc.). The document includes statistical program summaries and volunteer and trainee data. (ly) EDRS order number: ED 012 410, Price MF$0.75, HC-$5.32.

36. Raser, John R. INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF PSYCHOLOGY, 1967, 2 (1), 59-67. (Western Behavioral Sciences Inst., LaJolla, California. 1967. 9 pages.

ABSTRACT: Cross-cultural simulation research offers promise for understanding complex social situations. Simulation research must be improved by: (1) conforming simulation models more closely to issues faced in the "real" world, and (2) selecting Ss in such a way that their responses will be similar to their real world counterparts. Collaboration among scholars from various nations may help in answering, "How can the pluralism among the nations of men be used as a basis for community rather than chaos?" (19 ref.) AC 003 658.

37. Shea, Donald R. THE PREPARATION OF PEACE CORPS VOLUNTEERS FOR OVERSEAS SERVICE CHALLENGE AND RESPONSE. May 1966. 17 pages.

ABSTRACT: In order to be selected to serve abroad, Peace Corps Volunteers have first to complete successfully an intensive training program designed to develop attitudes, knowledge, and skills necessary for effective overseas service. The great majority of these training programs have been conducted by colleges and universities. It has been a great challenge both to the Peace Corps and to higher education to work together to develop training programs which would prepare the Volunteers for their work in a vastly different culture. Although, initially, universities encountered great difficulties in administering successful training programs, the experience gained has resulted in considerable improvement in the techniques of instruction and content of the training programs. Peace Corps learned in developing effective, interdisciplinary educational programs for Volunteers have had a beneficial impact on the regular instructional programs of many universities. Both higher education and the Peace Corps have benefited from their educational partnership, which is likely to become even more mutually productive in the future. This article appeared in THE ANNALS of the AMERICAN ACADEMY of POLITICAL and SOCIAL SCIENCE, 365 129-45, May 1966. AC 001 345.

38. Stern, George G. and others. PEACE CORPS, EVALUATION OF PEACE CORPS TRAINING PROGRAMS, SOME PSYCHOLOGICAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PEACE CORPS TRAINING UNITS AND TRAINEES. Final Report. Syracuse Univ., Syracuse, N.Y. Psychological Research Center. Peace Corps, Washington, D.C. PC-(W)-273. March 1966. 263 pages.

ABSTRACT: A quantitative comparison of the psychological characteristics of Peace Corps training units and trainees was made to provide a basis for rating program quality, establishing uniform training objectives and procedures, enabling training institutions to identify and improve areas of weakness, and selecting trainees. An analysis of 63 Peace Corps training units in 48 host institutions measured trainees and programs using tools evolved from studies of higher education by Stern, Stein, and Bloom. Measurements of success were final selction board ratings of trainees, training attrition, and overseas effectiveness ratings. Program characteristics associated with effective programs were friendly group interaction, well-rounded intellectual experience, emphasis on social action, individual trainee autonomy and responsibility, and high personal achievement standards. A number of personal characteristics had different effects on success in various phases of evaluation. (Nine appendixes contain detailed measures of the factors studied for each of the 63 programs). (ja) EDRS order number: ED 011 617, Price MF-$1.00, HC-$10.52.

39. Stewart, Edward C. and Prule, John B. AN APPROACH TO CULTURAL SELF-AWARENESS. George Washington Univ. HumRRO. U.S. Dept. of the Army. December 1966. 11 pages.

ABSTRACT: Self-awareness, a prominent theme in psychology, psychiatry, and human relations training, is the subject of this literature survey. The concept of self in psychotherapy and human relations training is unsuitable for application to training of persons who go overseas as military advisors, Peace Corps Volunteers, or AID technicians because the dimensions of the self are not clear. Training emphasizing cultural self-awareness of other cultures can counteract the trainees' attitudes of American cultural superiority, facilitate understanding of other cultures, and lead to better morale for overseas workers. An understanding of the American cultural self can provide bridges for observing and understanding others' predispositions and behavior. A first step in developing a training approach is to adopt concepts to be used in constructing a schemata of American culture with which the trainees could identify, such as norms of behavior, values, assumptions, and cognitive forms. (aj) AC 001 141.

40. Stewart, Edward C. SIMULATION EXERCISES IN AREA TRAINING. Paper presented in a symposium at the 1965 Army Human FactorsResearch and Development Conference. George Washington Univ., Washington, D.C. HumRRO. September 1967. 11 pages.

ABSTRACT: Special techniques and content are being developed to supplement current area training programs. Simulation was chosen as the technique, and exercises were developed whose content emphasized the American culture and the foreign, host culture. These evolved as a confrontation between American cultural assumptions and values and a contrasting set, conceived for training and research purposes only, called contrast American assumptions and values. When accopmpanied by appropriate introduction and critique, these exercises hold promise of achieving their training objectives. CFSTI order number: AD 660 012, Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

41. Stewart, Edward C. THE SIMULATION OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION. George Washington Univ. Alexandria, Va. Human Resources Research Office. Presented at the Symposium on International Communication between Industrial and Developing Countries, German Development Inst., Berlin, 28-31 March 1966. Report no. Professional Paper 50-67. December 1967. 19 pages.

ABSTRACT: The paper describes the development of a cross-cultural simulation, the idea of the contrast American and the conceptualization of cultural differences in terms of dimensions. The theories behind these concepts are discussed in depth. Excerpts are given of recordings made of two simulation encounters between an American advisor and the contrast American. The intent of the work in simulation is to (1) increase the American's cultural self-understanding; (2) provide him with concepts that will aid him in the observation and classification of other cultures; and (3) present to him culture and cultural differences at an interpersonal, rather than an abstract, level. (author). CFSTI order number: AD 665 053, Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

42. Stewart, Edward C. THE SIMULATION OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCES. HumRRO Professional Paper. George Washington Univ., Washington, D.C. U.S. Dept. of the Army. Dec. 1966. 14 pages.

ABSTRACT: Culture is apparent in some basic cognitive processes such as how individuals interpret events, how they form judgments, and how they arrive at decisions. Simulation of cultural differences through representation of an American advisor and his foreign counterpart was developed to prepare Americans for assignments overseas and to conduct research in interpersonal relations. Role playing scenes describe an American, played by a trainee, in a plausible situation overseas. The role of the counterpart, played by a trained actor, is manipulated to present a "contrast American" culture, a composite, synthetic culture that is a mirror image of middle-class America and resembles an existing culture. Simulation as a flexible training technique can be used at the beginning of training for emotional impact or at the end as a final synthesis of cross-cultural understanding. Research applications are the generation of concepts and insights into cross-cultural differences, revelation of concepts deserving of cross-cultural research, and experimental control of cognitive variables represented by the contrast-American. (Reprinted from The Journal of Communication 16(4)/291-304, Dec. 1966). (aj) AC001 217.

43. Stolurow, L.M. and others. CRITICAL INCIDENTS WITH HETERO-CULTURAL INTERACTIONS. Illinois Univ. Urbana. Training Research Laboratory TR 42 U.S. Dept. of the Navy. Office of Naval Research Group Psychology Branch. October 1966. 95 pages.

ABSTRACT: A plan was formulated for the preparation of self-instructional materials to train individuals for heterocultural interactions, toward the end of developing a sound training procedure that permitted the objective study of its effectiveness. The primary objective of these materials is to develop sensitivity to cultural differences -- the materials must teach individuals from interpersonal interaction differences to discriminate between their own culture and that of others. The specific discriminations are less important with this purpose than the ability to recognize that a cultural difference exists. Critical incidents of heterocultural interactions represent an important "raw material" for the development of self-instructional materials. They are samples of situations which led the reporter of the incident to a change in attitude toward a member of another culture. Consequently, this type of critical incident has the requisite information for teaching discriminations of the type that conceivably could transfer to thelearner's own future experience. The critical incidents were collected by different agencies and come from a variety of respondents. They are "raw material" for the development of the episodes used in the self-instructional programs called cultural assimilators. These incidents have code numbers and are grouped for convenient use. CFSTI order number AD 647 760 Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

44. Textor, Robert B. CULTURAL FRONTIERS OF THE PEACE CORPS. 1966. 379 pages.

ABSTRACT: The present work contains analyses of Peace Corps programs in selected host countries (the Philippines, Malaya, Thailand, Peru, Bolivia, Afghanistan, Somalia, Nigeria, Tanganyika, Sierra Leone, Tunisia, Morocco, and Jamaica) written by an authority on each country. Coverage of domestic operations of the Peace Corps is strictly limited to what is necessary to an understanding of its overseas activities and problems. Each writer is a social scientist or historian who has had an opportunity to observe volunteers in action in a host country. The unifying theme in all these studies lies in the differences separating the American culture of the Volunteers from that of host populations, and in the mutual communication and cooperation that pass, or should pass, between them. The document includes a foreword by Margaret Mead, an index, appendixes on the organization of the Peace Corps and the In-Up-Out principle, and chapter references. It is available for $6.95 from the M.I.T. Press, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Mass. 02142. (ly) AC 002 152.

45. Trail, Thomas F. EDUCATION OF DEVELOPMENT TECHICIANS; A GUIDE TO TRAINING PROGRAMS. 1968. 200 pages.

ABSTRACT: Based on a survey of 150 training syllabuses and interviews with training specialists, this study concentrated on training conducted in the United States for development technicians in government, voluntary, business, university, and religious agencies immediately before or soon after the technicians begin work overseas. Many major problems were revealed, including the limited curricula of training agencies, hasty and questionable preparation of many technicians, scarce training materials, low training priorities assigned by administrators, poor training methods, and the great diversity of trainee backgrounds and experience. Persons involved in conducting training agreed that technical and professional matters, cross-cultural understandings, and developmental processes are curriculum areas essential to technician preparation. They also indicated that the following aspects thereof deserve high training priority; agency philosophy and objectives, agency resources, administration, cultural adjustment, language skills, intercultural relations, institution building, and technological change. Available from Frederick A. Praeger, Publishers, 111 Fourth Avenue, New York, N.Y. 10003. (ly) AC 003 657.

46. Triandis, Harry C. and Vassiliou, Vasso A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF SUBJECTIVE CULTURE. Technical report. Illinois Univ. Urbana Group Effectiveness Research Lab. Report no. TR-55. Oct. 1967 72 pages.

ABSTRACT: A review of the results obtained when a variety of new techniques for the analysis of the way a person perceives his social environment is applied to the comparison of two cultural groups, reveals some basic similarities in the obtained results. The various methods give complementary information. The data were obtained from studies of the subjective culture of Americans and Greeks. Comparable instruments were administered to the two cultural groups and the results are presented in terms of the differences between American and Greek perceptions of social reality. The analysis of subjective culture is likely to help in the understanding of transcultural conflict, as well as in the development of theory concerning interpersonal attitudes, interpersonal behavior, and conflict resolution. (Author). CFSTI order number: AD 663 889 Price MF-$0.65, HC-$3.00.

47. Zahn, Jane C. SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF SUCCESSFUL AND LESS SUCCESSFUL OVERSEAS COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT ADVISERS. 1967. 9 pages.

ABSTRACT: A study was conducted to discover which tests or test items, if any, could predict competent performance of rural community development advisers in Southeast Asia. Seventeen trainees selected by the Agency for International Development to do community development work in Laos and Viet Nam were tested and interviewed. Two years later, their supervisors were asked to rate their performance. On the basis of supervisors' ratings, the test and interview scores and ratings were compared for the successful and less successful. Only three of eleven test instruments--the Terman Concept Mastery Test, a Religious Concepts Inventory, and a general questionnaire on preferences, background, and attitudes --separated the most successful from the least successful. A cosmopolitan, change-oriented, career-minded, slightly rebellious type of person would seem likely to perform best in rural development in Southeast Asia. (The document includes tables and references.) This document appeared in ADULT EDUCATION, Volume 19, Number 1, Autumn 1967. (ly) AC 001 699.

48. Zinser, Otto IMITATION, MODELING, AND CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING. Aerospace Medical Research Laboratories, Wright-Patterson AFB. July 1966 40 pages.

ABSTRACT: A study of the literature on imitation and modeling was conducted to aid in development of a modeling training techinique to accelerate the acquistion of cross-cultural interaction skills. The modeling procedure is designed to provide examplary behavior to the trainee via videotape recording. The literature review includes a summary of theoretical positions that have been formulated, a survey of research in terms of the variables that have been investigated, and a review of modeling techniques that have found application. A discussion devoted to implications for developing a cross-cultural training technique is also presented. The advantages and disadvantages of procedures for constructing an effective modeling technique are examined. The literature reviewed indicated that a modeling training technique has to date not been used to aid in the acquisition of cross-cultural interaction skills. It is recommended that the effectiveness of such a training technique be evaluated. CFSTI order number: AD 642 427. Price MF-$0.65,HC-$3.00.

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